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VOLUME X

1940



THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

PUBLISHED JANUARY, APRIL, JULY, OCTOBER, 1940

COMPOSED AND PRINTED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, U.S.A. General

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VOLUME X · JANUARY 1940 · NUMBER 1 THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science

Established by The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago with the Co-operation of The American Library Association, The Bibliographical Society of America, and The American Library Institute.

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The Library Quarterly was established by the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, with the assistance of the Carnegie Corporation, to fill the need suggested by a committee of the American Library Association for a journal of investigation and discussion in the field of librarianship. It is published in January, April, July, and October by the University of Chicago at the University Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. The subscription price is \$5.00 per year; the price of single copies is \$1.50, with the exception of the April, 1934, issue which is \$2.00. Orders for service of less than a full year will be charged at the single-copy rate. Postage is prepaid by the publishers on all orders from the United States, Mexico, Cuba, Puerto Rico, Panama Canal Zone, Republic of Panama, Dominican Republic, Canary Islands, El Salvador, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Peru, Haiti, Uruguay, Paraguay, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Samoan Islands, Balearic Islands, Spain, and Venezuela. Postage is charged extra as follows: for Canada and Newfoundland, 15 cents on annual subscriptions (total \$5.15), on single copies 4 cents (total \$1.54); for all other countries in the Postal Union, 25 cents on annual subscriptions (total \$5.25), on single copies 6 cents (total \$1.56). Patrons are requested to make all remittances payable to The University of Chicago Press in postal or express money orders or bank drafts.

The following are authorized agents:

For the British Empire, except North America, India, and Australasia: The Cambridge University Press, Bentley House, 200 Euston Road, London, N.W. 1, England. Prices of yearly subscriptions and of single copies may be had on application.

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Claims for missing numbers should be made within the month following the regular month of publication. The publishers expect to supply missing numbers free only when losses have been sustained in transit and when the reserve stock will permit.

Business correspondence should be addressed to The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill.

Communications for the editors, manuscripts, and books for review should be addressed to the Managing Editor, The Library Quarterly, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Applications for permission to quote from this journal should be addressed to The University

of Chicago Press, and will be freely granted.

Entered as second-class matter January 2, 1931, at the post-office at Chicago, Illinois, under the Act of March 3, 1870. Act of February 28, 1925, authorized January 9, 1931.

PRINTED IN U.S.A





THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

Volume X

JANUARY 1940

Number 1

AN INQUIRY INTO THE STATEMENT OF MOTIVES BY READERS¹

HELEN L. BUTLER

ALTHOUGH psychologists, educators, and librarians have for several decades interested themselves in the problems attached to the various functions of reading, concern about the question of why people read at all has been comparatively recent. And yet the answer to that question might solve a good many difficulties encountered by the librarian in supplying readers with the books best suited to them. For upon the "drive" or motive back of the reading activity depend the energy, purposefulness, and perseverance which the individual is willing to devote to that activity.

It is obvious that the reader in search of diversion will not be driven by the same force as will the person whose job, health, or closest ambition demand the understanding of a complicated technical process or the mastering of a foreign language. When advancement in professional status depends on the passing of promotional examinations, for example, reading of a more intensive nature occurs than when the urge is founded on some temporary desire for escape from surroundings or thoughts. For some readers, to have a practical return from reading im-

¹ Essential portion of unpublished Doctor's thesis (University of Chicago, Graduate Library School, 1939).

mediately available and not postponed into an uncertain future is to cause the material to be perused with greater attention than would otherwise accompany the process. With others the opportunity to project themselves into an imaginary world almost entirely motivates their reading and from such reading they take an immediate and a sustained satisfaction. W. W. Hatfield has said: "The chief element that differentiates one reading activity from another is the purpose of the reader at the moment."

In library practice any additional information which helps to clarify the librarian's knowledge of readers' needs is desirable. Considerable light might be expected from the identification of reading incentives—light which would result in a more intelligent understanding of and sympathy for those needs. The unsatisfactory circumstance of readers being unable to describe the material they want or its treatment and scope because they are unfamiliar with the implications of the subject, are diffident and uncomfortable in the library, or are inarticulate in phrasing their needs may be alleviated by the librarian's ability to judge what is needed when the occasion for the need is made known. And there is avoided the equally unsatisfactory situation which sometimes results when the librarian simply brings all the material on the subject indicated which the library possesses, deposits it before the reader, and leaves him to choose what he thinks he needs.

Only the simplest commodities are so dispensed by commercial firms. With all others the salesman is considered, by virtue of his associations and experience, to have expert advice to offer about the product he sells and so to be in a position to advise the buyer. To a far greater extent the professionally trained librarian is better acquainted with his book collection and its possible help for the reader than is the reader. In any case, when the book collection is too large to be conveniently placed on the table before the reader, a choice of materials becomes

² An experience curriculum in English: a report of the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English (New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1935), p. 100.

imperative. In this choice a knowledge of reading motive will allow the librarian to infer something of the effort the reader is willing to put into his reading and will so provide a clue as to the treatment desired. If the motive can be shown to be a condition affecting many people in the community, its presence will certainly concern a noticeable proportion of these. Learning of its presence and potential power to turn people to books, the librarian may prepare against the call emanating from it by purchasing sufficient material or may use it as a stimulus for reading among those who would not ordinarily think of books as a source of satisfaction in that connection.

The studies made of reading incentives, including this one, have returned inconclusive results. A fundamental difficulty encountered by the few inquirers into the subject-and an obstacle none have been able successfully to surmount—has been the determination of an appropriate and meaningful terminology and its classification into real and discrete groups. Broad, sweeping generalizations are so inclusive as to be meaningless when applied to the reader who appears at the library desk. On the other hand, the narrower the limitation, the more individual the application, the more personal the occasion inspiring it, the less likely is the term to apply to a group of readers, however small, although all may be reading identical books. And the less useful to the library for that reason. Add to this the wishful thinking of many readers which makes them ascribe to their reading purposes which are overambitious for the material read, plus their inability in as many instances to identify the exact impulse which sent them to books, and we easily understand the difficulties which beset the investigator. Too many readers are like a certain Rochester youth in knowing only that they "just have a natural tendency to read."

COLLECTING DATA

In an attempt to ascertain reasons for such confusion and to identify more exactly, if possible, the primary reading motives, the writer compiled a list of some one hundred purposes which might be satisfied by books. Drawn from her own library ex-

periences and from the materials in print, the list covered thir teen subject fields: fiction, essay, poetry, drama, biography, travel, history, sociology, education, science, business, fine arts, and philosophy-religion. These lists were sent to forty-five libraries of all types—small, medium-sized, and large, specialized and general—over the United States. More than fifty-five librarians and heads of departments checked the list, commenting on the items found there and suggesting others which had been encountered in their reader contacts.

A second list, incorporating these suggestions, was compiled which contained 134 separate items. This was broken down into the thirteen subject fields previously mentioned, each of which included 20 items generally applicable to all fields of knowledge and from 6 to 12 items pertaining particularly to the subject of that list. Thus the thirteen different lists included from 26 to 32 motives each, 20 of which covered the general purposes of school assignment, recreation, association with a keener mind, and information. The last-named was attacked from the various angles pertaining to the job, self-improvement, keeping abreast of the times, satisfaction of curiosity, informal group study, creative activity, and development of personality. Recreation was analyzed as relaxation, the following of a hobby, escape, and contest or puzzle-working, though it was understood that escape can accompany the acquisition of information, as can recreation in general. No attempt was made to disentangle these-it was left for the reader to indicate which was his individual purpose in reading.

To the list was added a page calling for identification of material read and of the reader (the latter by sex, nationality, occupation, age, and educational groups) in order that any relationship which might exist between these factors could be

brought to light.

With generosity and professional understanding Mr. John A. Lowe, director of the Rochester (New York) Public Library, consented to the use of the questionnaire in his library, and his staff efficiently administered it. During a nineteen-day period (February 14-March 7, 1938) copies of the questionnaire were

made available in the Rochester Public Library, and readers were invited to fill them out. About 1,850 forms were returned, most of them with full information on the items asked for, although about one-sixth were useless for any part of the investigation.

Of the returned forms 1,725 showed the educational group to which these readers belonged: 7 per cent had grade-school education, about 48 per cent had high school, 34 per cent had college, and about 12 per cent had graduate work. Only 1,427 of

these forms were generally useful.

Fewer omissions were noted in the marking of the last item called for—the age group—than in any other except sex. It was clear that the scorer did not tire before completing the form, but that he omitted earlier items because of disinclination to supply the information. One-fourth of the 1,803 readers who filled in this item were in the fifteen to nineteen-years-of-age group, 37 per cent were in the twenty to twenty-nine-years-of-age group, a little less than 24 per cent were in the thirty to forty-four-years-of-age group, and a little less than 15 per cent were over forty-four years old. These figures agree with conditions observed in other library systems, where the number of borrowers over forty years of age is much smaller than that of the teen age or twenties.

The sex of the Rochester readers, as far as the sample may be typical, differs from the usual library distribution. Of the 1,805 people who gave their sex 1,054 (slightly more than 58 per cent) were men, and 751 (slightly less than 42 per cent) were women. Most students of reading report that feminine readers predominate. Significantly, the fiction forms returned in that division of the Rochester Public Library showed 67 per cent

women and 33 per cent men.

Forms showing occupation numbered 1,318. Of these the largest class by far consisted of students, and the second largest of housewives. Other occupations were not classified after the first half of the questionnaire had been analyzed, and it became apparent that there was no relationship between occupation and reading motives.

An important assumption must be understood in regard to these figures. Whenever data are collected by such gratuitous methods as were employed in this study it must be taken for granted that the persons who filled out the forms represent in their true proportions the users of the entire library or of the separate collections they are using. It is recognized that the adolescent reader, more accustomed to tests and questionnaires than some of his elders, is not only willing but eager to respond to a request of this kind, whereas older readers may be reluctant to take the time necessary to give the information asked for. Without recourse to actual book-card and registration records for proof, it must be assumed that the forms returned by the patrons represent fairly the separate groups of department users. But, since students represent less than 32 per cent of the given occupations while the fifteen to nineteen-year and the twenty to twenty-nine-year groups represent 62 per cent of the readers, it is not likely that the presence of the students in this study skews the picture disproportionately.

What, then, are the motives which the reader says actuate him when he picks up a book to read?

MOTIVES GOVERNING IN VARIOUS SUBJECT FIELDS

Fiction.—From the tabulated scores of the items checked by readers in various subject fields certain similarities and differences are evident. In fiction obviously the recreational motive runs high. First in rank it was the purpose of 75 per cent of the fiction readers. But general information can also be pleasantly acquired through the medium of fiction, 37 per cent believed. The escape motive ran third, 27 per cent checking it. Fourth in line was curiosity about people in other countries; next, the psychological impulse to analyze human motives and conduct in paper-and-ink creatures. Information that comes from contact with a keener mind than one's own may also be obtained through fiction, 23 per cent of the readers thought. Almost an equal number (22 per cent) frankly admitted the herd motive—reading the books one's friends talk about. It was seventh in rank. Eighth (21 per cent) was the desire to learn history pain-

lessly; ninth (20 per cent), the desire to keep up with new ideas; and tenth (13 per cent), for the fun and suspense which come from not knowing how the story will end.

Least important motives on the fiction list, apparently, were contests and the passing of examinations (less than I per cent checked each of these). If Rochester study clubs were reading fiction that winter only four members turned to the public library for their novels during the period of the study. Another four readers wanted from their reading directions for making something. Included among them was a salesman who had evidently obtained pertinent suggestions from Damon Runyon's fiction on other occasions, since he indicated that was his purpose in trying another of the author's works. Less than 2 per cent read fiction because they themselves wanted to write (only five readers checked Item 15 (to teach you how to writel). Six, or 2 per cent, felt that such material might help them prepare for another job; eight (3 per cent) were gathering information to pass on to other people through book reviews, papers, or talks. Six per cent (sixteen people) felt that reading a particular book might help them to form an opinion, and another 6 per cent felt it might help them solve their own problems. They were in agreement, evidently, with Charles Morgan's contention that

.... man's happiness or unhappiness, his value or worthlessness, depends upon his private philosophy—on his power to love and to respond to love, on his faculty of pleasure in little things, on his belief or disbelief in heaven and hell, on his capacity for hope and acceptance—in brief on the nature and strength of his secret imagination. Story-telling and poetry teach him this and teach it continually.³

Midway in popularity was a group of motives of such dubious strength as to cause a suspicion that doubling the number of readers might make these scores very high or very low. They included many of the profitable claims commonly advanced to justify the reading of fiction—satisfaction of curiosity, development of personality, furthering of a hobby (reading itself, apparently, as all books by one author or about one subject),

^{3 &}quot;A defense of story-telling," Yale review, XXIII (new ser., 1934), 776-77.

vicarious experience, remedying early educational lacks, historical information painlessly acquired, duplication of the satisfactions obtained in some moving-picture performance, and

understanding of modern problems.

To take but one of these: It is a commonplace in library circulation departments that the showing of a film derived from a book, popular or unpopular, will cause a considerable increase in demand for that volume. Corroborating this, Wilfred Eberhart reported that in a study he made of 101 tenth- and eleventhgrade students 82 adolescents had in a year's time read one or more books written by famous nineteenth-century novelistssuch as Cooper, Dickens, Eliot, etc.4 Those authors whose plots and titles had been used by the film industry were most popular, while Eliot and Thackeray, whose books had not been dramatized, were lowest on the list. Ten Rochester readers of the three-week period were reading fiction for this purpose. One cannot fail to sympathize with the young clerk—a high-school graduate of teen age—who read Gone with the wind in February, 1938, with the hope of seeing Clark Gable impersonate Rhett Butler and a year later was still waiting for the film to appear, with or without her favorite silver-sheet actor.

Recreation, a vague hope of increasing general information effortlessly, escape from reality, interest in people in other parts of the country, and the drama of human motives and conduct were the chief forces which sent people to novels. Of these the search for recreation was twice as compelling as the desire for knowledge and almost three times as great as the need for escape or as interest in people.

Poetry.—With poetry, essay, and drama conditions were similar, although here conclusions must be more tentatively reached because of the small number of readers under inspection. Of the twenty-five readers of poetry over half declared their motive to be recreational. Nine explained this by checking the items relating to the sound and imagery of poetic lines. Nine others derived their pleasure from the enriched experience resulting

^{4 &}quot;The teaching of literature: an approach to evaluation," Educational research bulletin, XVII (1938), 1-6.

from contact with the poetic mind. It was to be expected that the general items—increased vision and deepened understanding which result from reading in general—should accordingly follow. Five persons read poetry only because school assignments demanded it. Four wished to talk about it to other people; and four others sought models for their own verse. No other motives had scores large enough to remove them from the realm of chance.

Essays.—Essays were in demand: first, for school purposes; second, as a recreational device (one man used them to read himself to sleep); and third, as a source of general knowledge. As an instance of the last purpose, a dietitian was reading Della Lutes's Country kitchen as preparation for listening to the author lecture at a banquet she expected to attend.

Drama.—From the drama collection a stenographer borrowed Howard's Paths of glory because she wished to compare the play with the novel from which it was taken. A salesman turned to Galsworthy's Strife to learn a dialogue for an impromptu (sic) initiation exercise. Lin Yutang's mention of the medieval Chinese play, The west chamber, in a lecture locally given sent the wife of a designer to the library for it. But, for the most part, drama readers declared that school, need for recreation, and the joys of amateur production were the most important reasons for turning to this form of literature. General information, curiosity, and hobby interests completed the list of reliable scores.

In none of the other nine subject fields did recreational reading come first. Desire for information was here in the first rank: general information in the case of biography, travel, philosophyreligion, and sociology; information for school lessons first and background second in the case of history and education; information directed specifically at vocational efficiency in science and business; and information connected with hobbies and avocational occupation in the fine arts.

Biography.—In biography alone of these nine fields did the recreational motive reach second place, 32 per cent of the group checking it. The general desire for the enriching contact with

a keener mind shared third place with the specific wish to know how great people have influenced history (26 per cent each). Almost as many people, however (25 per cent), were curious to know what influences in turn played their parts in shaping the great man's character and acts. Twenty per cent said they wished to transfer the knowledge of the biographee to a better understanding of the living people around them; which may or may not have been the same motive that 19 per cent had in mind when they declared that their reading was to satisfy their curiosity. For 18 per cent the story quality of biography was reason enough for reading this form. And, curiously enough, an identical number regarded biography as a means of keeping up with new ideas and of going back to pick up old ones: each motive was scored by 20 readers.

Librarians frequently lament that their institutions seem overrun at times by citizens hopefully engaged upon the solution of some puzzle or participating in a much publicized contest. Although such a contest was in process at the time of this study, only 11 of the 1,506 readers were using library tools for this purpose and the largest section of those—only three in

number—read biography.

Likewise low in the scale were the reading of biography to pass an examination, to help get another job, for study-club programs, to obtain directions for making something, to teach one how to write, for use in remedial education. While 24 readers (19 per cent) confessed that in their desire for information they were impelled by curiosity, only 9 (about 7 per cent) acknowledged this curiosity to be connected with the details of the biographee's private life, and only 6 confessed that their purpose was pornographic. After noting their choice of titles—Casanova; Cleopatra; Mary, Queen of Scots; Benedict Arnold—we are confident that they were not disappointed in their purpose. A reader of Colonel Lawrence's life, however, disclaimed any prurient interest in his private affairs, crossing out the "scandalous" of the item and underlining the "adventure."

Great biographers from Plutarch on have maintained that true biography is history teaching by example and that its greatest value lies in the application that may be made to our own lives. If this is so, the didactic purpose has only lukewarm interest for the reader. Only 10 per cent of the group checked Item 24 (to find inspiration to live your life more successfully)—it had fifteenth place in the ranks of motives. Curiosity, noble or ignoble, seems more powerful, if one may thus translate the desire expressed for information.

Travel.—In travel it seems not to matter a great deal whether one hopes actually to visit the places he reads about or not his desire for general information about them applies almost equally in either case. For while 49 per cent of the travel readers declared information to be their goal, 44 per cent indicated interest in people and places regardless of actual contact with them, and 42 per cent said their reading was connected with actual or hoped-for visits there. Among the latter may have been included the 10 per cent who said they read about distant places because they were not able to visit them in person. Indeed, one young Italian woman made this clear by writing in the words "but not instead." Only five readers rejected personal experience in favor of vicarious experience through print, indicating that they thought it more pleasant to read about a country than to visit it. The places they were interested in may explain this somewhat—Africa, Australia, and the Alcazar.

Observing the popularity of such writers as Halliburton, Seabrook, and the Abbe children, to mention only a few, librarians have considered that travel books have a biographical appeal as well—that where the personality of the travel-writer is particularly vivid and likeable, a combination of hero-worship, projection of self, and spirit of adventure make him possess a more powerful attraction for some readers than exact information about a country. Corroborating evidence lies in the scoring of Item 22 (you like a real story, true and yet like a novel) by 28 per cent of the Rochester readers.

Other motives ranking high were the value of seeing the country through a keen man's eyes, the satisfaction of curiosity, the opportunity for escape from surroundings, and the desire to spread international good will by understanding other nations.

From the notes supplied by individual readers we get a glimpse of the dreams and aspirations of travel readers, ranging in a wide arc from the sublime to the ridiculous. There was the college-bred Irish clerk in his thirties who chose Webb Miller's I found no peace "to understand and read how other people meet the crisis of life, regardless of place or occasion." And a night-school student in his twenties who declared: "Stamp collectors read travel books because it helps them to locate and understand a place." Most interesting was the reason advanced (because it revealed the reader so clearly) by an assembler, a member of the American Legion, of grade-school training and past his forties, obviously a rolling stone: "Because I travelled myself some, and has a friend whom seen quite a bit of the world, and I want to read more about these places." His choice was J. N. Hall's Tale of a shipwreck. The teen-age collegian, keeping in mind the not-far-distant job, wanted to read Erna Ferguson's Guatemala because "some day I hope to do field work in the South American countries which are new to botanists and geologists." Equally vocational but not so realistic was the note added by the first-year high-school student who borrowed Grinnell's By Cheyenne campfires. He wrote gravely one can picture with what sober self-dedication—"To prepare for my chosen vocation."

Sociological material.—Sociological material is interesting to our purpose for four reasons: This subject field is one of three in which recreational motives did not appear within the first ten ranks. In only one instance did the ten high ranking motives here dip down from the general statement to the specific—"to know more about the business of government." In this subject also (as in the philosophy-religion field) the teaching motive was higher than in the other fields—it had third place. Finally, sociology was the only subject in which the motive of reading for the sake of proving an argument was found within the first ten ranks. This must not be taken too seriously, though, because it is traceable to the fact that a number of debates were being held in Rochester in February and March and to the fact that debate books on whatever topic were commonly

classified as sociology.

Aside from these purposes, in these days of social unrest and political uncertainty men turn to sociological works for general information, to get the point of view of wiser men, to keep up with new ideas, to obtain job efficiency, to pass civil service examinations, to satisfy their curiosity, and to prepare for another job. Of little or no significance in this subject to the group concerned were the examples of friends' reading, study clubs, directions for making something, learning to write, remedial education, personality development, escape from reality, contests, parliamentary procedure, understanding human relations, matters of etiquette, and the ability to handle statistical data. Directly related to this, of course, is the fact that few books circulated on these topics.

Philosophy-religion.—Men read philosophy-religion for general information, too, but the proportion who read for this purpose (44 per cent) is only a little larger than those who read to know what wiser men think (39 per cent), which is as we expected to find it. Nor were we surprised that the teaching motive should be third in rank (28.5 per cent), owing to the strong representation of teachers, ministers, and Sunday school members among the readers. The desire for general information seemed prompted partly by a wish to keep up with new ideas (20 per cent) and partly by a desire to know what other people believe (20 per cent). Here is heartening evidence of a wish to understand one's neighbor and his point of view and creed which, carried far enough, should help to provide a basis of mutual sympathy and respect. The ever present interest in biblical matters which grips a good part of our population undoubtedly put that item next in line, 19 per cent of the group scoring it.

The number of readers (18 per cent) concerned about their own conduct in the solution of daily problems was only slightly smaller than those intelligently (we trust) curious about their neighbors' beliefs. Widely varied are the books from which the former expected the answers to come and from which we gain an insight into the questions that perplexed them: an article in the Cyclopedia of religion and ethics on "Prayer and the soul," an article in Forum on birth control, Scott's Religion and com-

mon sense, the crucifixion chapters from the Bible, Olin Templin's A guide to thinking, Latz's The rhythm, Mary Baker Eddy's Science and health, Oliver Lodge's Science and human

progress, and others.

Moderately high in the list of motives were: the wish to know why people act as they do (17.5 per cent), the attempt to reconcile religious faith with modern thought (16 per cent), and the need for help in setting up one's personal code (16 per cent)-topics which, in the main, appeal to older readers or to college-trained readers, according to the identification sheets.

Only less significant were the motives lowest in the scale of ranked scores. People do not talk about religious or philosophical books, evidently; or, if they do, the conversation has no sales value. There were no examinations called in the subjects. and they offered no help in preparing for another job. If ministers feel the need of help in writing sermons, biographies, and the like, none turned to the library for the purpose during the period of the study. Only one person checked the numerologyastrology-palmistry item, though librarians occasionally are inclined to think his number is legion and is increasing daily. A delightful bit of human nature came to light when a housewife (a high-school graduate in her twenties) stated that she chose Wolf's Studies in handreading for reasons of curiosity and hobby-riding, and, as she added, "also to make a little pin money." However, she did not check Item 24 (believe that dreams, lines in the hands, stars or numbers have meaning) which would declare belief in what she sold.

Only two people felt concern over what to teach their children about religion-not enough to remove the scoring from the realm of pure chance—thus indicating that the desire of the larger number to pass along information on the subject was not touched by uncertainty of what to pass along—to their own off-

spring, at least.

It was evident that an intelligent curiosity, the hope of sharing others' wisdom, and the occasions for giving information to other people were the chief reasons why people read books in the field of philosophy-religion.

Education.—School requirements mounted higher than any other motive in the fields of history and education, 40 per cent and 36 per cent, respectively, checking this item. If, however, we make a mental note of the fact that library shelves must therefore be stocked with materials which fit into the curriculums of local institutions, we may pass on to the motives for voluntary reading. General information ranks first in both fields.

In education the quest for general information seemed to be most often directed at learning something about educational systems. Job efficiency and a special phase of that efficiency (handling children and their parents) were next in importance. Following successively came the expectation of acquiring information from contact with a richer mind, need for preparation for another job, necessity of transmitting information to other people, and, in tenth place, the wish to find a desirable school. In all these, except the last, it was the teacher, actual or embryonic, who registered his reading purposes, a not unexpected state of affairs when thirty-two of the fifty-five scorers were teachers and students. Here, obviously, is a field in which teachers read about teaching because they were teachers and hoped to be better ones. At the same time, we wonder where the general reader was, especially the parent (only four housewives were listed here), that he showed no interest in the institution which for eight or twelve years molds the thoughts of his children.

History.—With history readers, the desire for general information was directed first at learning the conditions and people that have made history; next at discovering the social conditions of other times, the historic changes that have occurred and the effect these have had on our own times; and, finally, at determining the progress of civilization. Recreational reading came back into the picture with history—it was seventh in rank. Curiosity and the hope of inspiring contact with a keener intellect completed the first ten places. They show an earnest attempt to interpret the present through understanding the past. As one teen-age Italo-Irish youth put it: "Helps a man

understand himself (ideas, prejudices) by living with people of

long ago through books."

Business.—It is only when we come to business, science, and fine arts that we see the urge for background information give way to preference for specific information which bears directly upon vocational efficiency in the case of the first two subjects and upon avocational expertness in the case of the third. It is true that the numbers of individuals checking Items 6 (job efficiency) and 7 (general information) of both business and science are nearly identical, but the increased emphasis on the job in these two fields beyond that in other fields is significant.

On the business form practically all the ten ranking items may be interpreted as the practical consideration of a means of livelihood. The necessity for keeping pace with the times, for rubbing elbows with cleverer businessmen and perhaps absorbing their ideas, for investing safely, for seeing one's way through the economic maze of current conditions—all are plainly indi-

cated by the scores.

There are the eccentrics, of course. A stenographer, college-trained and "forty-past," wanted "to get the facts on the present system of money rackets." And a carpenter—a member of the American Labor party and in his twenties—was reading Karl Marx with the modest intent "to aid the workers and farmers in their struggle against capitalism, to fight fascism, and to defend democracy and to unite the people in a common front against reaction." But, in the main, the readers of business literature were businessmen, salesmen, advertisers, accountants, and investors—all earnestly intent upon reports of business conditions and practice and consistent readers of the better-known financial journals.

Oddly enough, business was the only field in which Item 17 (development of personality and dominance over others) reached the upper third of scores. Whether this was because each of these readers saw himself as a captain of finance bending others to his will, or whether it was a simple realization of the market value of an attractive personality, it would be idle to speculate. There must be some financial connection with its

high score here, since the item ranked only seventeenth in philosophy-religion where Dale Carnegie's followers more logically belong.

Science.—Equally clean-cut was the scoring of the science forms, where the three top ranking motives were identical with those of business: the job, general information, and keeping up with new ideas. The last-named is here practically the same as Item 21 (know about developments in scientific investigation); hence it is not surprising that the two should rank together. Hobbies play a big part in scientific reading, it seems, hobbies which may or may not involve the solution of a technical problem such as is involved in Item 27 (have a technical problem to solve) or the exact formula of Item 22 (need information about a formula, recipe, etc.). Recreational reading is here, too, as is the satisfaction of curiosity. Only the need for inspiration from others has no place in science reading, almost alone of all the factual subject fields.

Fine Arts.—With fine arts materials the needle of reading purpose at the Rochester library dipped definitely in the opposite direction—it was not the job this time which sent men to books; it was the hobby intelligently pursued. Eighty-two per cent of all these readers said they were riding a hobbyhorse that required expertness and skill (the second ranking motive was Item 25, which indicated a desire for improvement in technique and skill). General information entered the list in third place—these were largely the feminine readers, who also helped to bring the recreational motive into line. The scoring between theorists and technicians was close also in Item 14 (directions for making something) and in 21 (understand the quality of an artist's work), with the latter showing a slight advantage.

The great kodak industry and its attendant interest in both professional and amateur photography was the chief reason for the job motive being found in the ten ranking purposes. These readers were mainly the workers responsible for the means whereby the larger proportion had an avocational tool. One is reminded here of Struthers Burt's famous remark about the tourist trade: half the nation working at helping the other half

to travel comfortably, in order to make enough money so that

it, too, may travel the next year.

In all the scoring there was evinced the wish of the Rochester readers to participate in, rather than to appreciate passively, artistic activity. Gardeners were numerous, photographers outstanding, musicians many, writers, teachers, inventors, and advertisers in less marked evidence. There was no age limit, as was proved by the eighty-year-old sheet-metal worker whose daughter was borrowing a book of embroidery designs which he could use for embossing designs. On the other hand, the women's club member writing her paper on an art topic more or less familiar was conspicuously missing. Art theory, apparently, is important but not so much so as is art practice.

What, then, of the "drives" which send people to books? It would be an oversimplification of a difficult question to say merely that people believe they read belles-lettres to relax and enjoy themselves; read history and education because their teachers demand it; read sociology, travel, biography, and philosophy-religion because they want to increase their fund of general information; read science and business because they want to make good on their jobs; read fine arts because they have hobbies. In Table 1 is indicated the rank of suggested reading motives in subject fields, as shown by the Rochester study. However, other factors may be present which outweigh subject compulsions. If so, they bear looking into.

DIFFERENCES IN MOTIVES DUE TO SUBJECT, SEX, AND THE MATURITY OF READERS

Inspection of the Rochester data reveals striking differences when motives are isolated which (1) cut across the various subject fields; (2) are important in individual subject fields only; (3) are due to the sex of the readers; or, (4) change as they accompany the reading of materials in one of three levels of literary excellence.

Motives which predominate in the various subject fields.—In the complete list of 134 motives, 2 items stand out from the rest:
(1) the desire for general information, and (2) the wish for

recreation. Not only do these claim first rank in more subject fields than do any other items, but they total larger scores than any others within the same subject fields. The first of these,

TABLE 1

RANK OF READING MOTIVES IN SUBJECT FIELDS

Subject		R	ANK	
FIELD	1	:	3	4
Fiction	Recreation	Information	Escape	People in other
Poetry	Recreation	Like the sound and imagery	New signifi- cance to own acts	Contact with keener mind
Essay	School assign- ment	Recreation	Information	Friends' reading
Drama	School assign- ment	Recreation	Amateur pro- duction	Information
Biography	Information	Recreation	Contact with keener mind	Influence of great people
Travel	Information	How people in other lands live	Recreation	Personality and adventures of writer
Sociology	Information	Contact with keener mind	Give informa- tion to others	School assign- ment
Philosophy-re-				
ligion	Information	Contact with keener mind	Give informa- tion to others	New ideas
History	School assign- ment	Information	Cause of histori- cal change	How people lived in other times
Education	School assign- ment	Information	Today's educa- tional sys- tems	How to handle people
Business	Job efficiency	Information	New ideas	Contact with keener mind
Science	Job efficiency	Information	New ideas	Scientific devel- opments
Fine arts	Hobby	Improve tech- nique or skill	Information	Recreation

[&]quot;reading to increase one's fund of general information," holds first rank in biography, travel, sociology, and philosophy-religion; and second place in fiction, education, history, business, and science. Only in poetry does it fall as low as sixth place.

In travel practically half (49 per cent) of all the readers scored it. It is the most urgent of all the reasons for reading. Table 2 shows the order in which Rochester men and women ranked "general information" as a reading motive in selected subject fields.

But recreation is important, too. This item takes first rank in fiction and poetry; shares first place with school assignments

TABLE 2*
THE RANK OF "GENERAL INFORMATION" AS A MOTIVE SUGGESTED BY MEN AND BY WOMEN FOR READING

Subject			RA	NR		
FIELD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Biography	M and W					
Travel	M	W				
Sociology	M	W				
Philosophy-religion	M		W			
Education	M				W	
iction		M and W				
cience		M		W		
¥* .		M				W
Orama		M				
Business		M				
ine arts		W	M			
Poetry				W		
ssay				W		

This table is read as follows: The letters "M" and "W" to the right of "biography" and in col. 1 mean that more men and women gave "general information" as a motive for reading biography than any other motive. The letter "W" to the right of "travel" and in col. 2 means that "general information" was mentioned by the second largest number of women as a motive for reading travel. The other letters are read in the same way.

and production hopes in drama; holds second place in essay and biography. In fiction the largest group scoring any item in any subject field—76 per cent—gave it as their reason for choosing that particular form of print. Only in education does it fail to register at all as a reading incentive, though it is comparatively low in sociology and philosophy-religion, also. In Table 3 is shown the order in which Rochester men and women ranked "recreation" as a reading motive in the various subject fields.

Third in importance among all the motives is the involuntary drive which comes from school lessons. In reading essays, education, and history it is the first cause; and it shares that front rank with recreation in the drama. All the thirteen subject fields were somewhat affected by its motivation, travel and fiction being much less so for the period of this investigation

TABLE 3*
THE RANK OF "RECREATION" AS A MOTIVE SUGGESTED BY MEN AND BY WOMEN FOR READING

Subject							R	ANK								
FIELD	1	2	3	4	5	6		7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Fiction	M and W	1														
Poetry	W	M														
Essay	W															
Drama		M	W													
Fine arts	W								M							
Biography																
Travel							Ma	nd W								
History								W								
Science								M						177		
Sociology								M								W
Business											M					
Philosophy-											444					
religion												M				
Education		1														

This table is read as follows: The letters "M" and "W" to the right of "fiction" and in col. 1 mean that more men and women gave "recreation" as a motive for reading fiction than any other motive. The letter "M" to the right of "poetry" and in col. 2 means that "recreation" was mentioned by the second largest number of men as a motive for reading poetry. The other letters are read in the same way.

than were any other fields. Table 4 shows the rank of "school assignment" as a motive suggested by men and by women for reading.

Inherent in both recreational and informational reading is the wish to be raised beyond the individual's normal level of thought and action by the wisdom, light, and inspiration which a capable writer can offer. Usually, readers do not regard this motive as a separate end to be attained apart from other purposes. In no complete subject group was it marked first. The thought of sharing another's superior vision and opportunities accompanies other purposes so frequently, however, whether these be informational or recreational, that readers in practically all subject fields scored Item 18 generously. This motive had second rank in sociology and philosophy-religion; shared third place in biography; ranked fourth in fields as widely differing as poetry and business, and sixth in fiction, travel, and

TABLE 4*
THE RANK OF "School Assignment" as a Motive Suggested by Men and by Women for Reading

Subject										RA	NE												
FIELD	I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	E	12	13	14	15	16	17		18	3		19	20
History	M and W						1.	1.				1							 				
Essay	M																						
Drama		M					l												 				
Education	W	M		l		l		l										1.	 				
Science	W						1	1										i			-		
Business	W					1	1							1				1				1	
Sociology																							
Biography																							
Poetry						W	1												 				
Fine arts								W														M	
Philosophy-				1				1	1.			1											
religion								W															M
Travel																							* *

[•] This table is read as follows: The letters "M" and "W" to the right of "history" and in col. I mean that more men and women gave "school assignment" as a motive for reading fiction than any other motive. The letter "M" to the right of "drama" and in col. 2 means that "school assignment" was mentioned by the second largest number of men as a motive for reading drama. The other letters are read in the same way.

education; dropped to ninth place in history and to twelfth in science and fine arts. Readers scoring the item comprised from 39 per cent of the philosophy-religion group to 12 per cent of the history and science groups. Table 5 shows the rank of "contact with keener mind" as a motive suggested by men and by women for reading.

The second fact of consequence established by the data is that certain motives will rank high in one or two fields but are not strong incentives in the remaining subjects. For example, reading to pass an examination was extensive enough in sociology to cause the item to hold fifth place—but that was because of civil service examinations in the offing. The purpose showed in only three other subject fields—fiction, history, and business—and there only to a slight degree. So, too, with the item specifying directions for making something. In fine arts this was evidently a genuine need; the item ranked sixth. In science

TABLE 5*

THE RANK OF "CONTACT WITH KEENER MIND" AS A MOTIVE SUGGESTED BY MEN AND BY WOMEN FOR READING

Subject									RANB								
FIELD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Philosophy-reli- gion	w	M															
Sociology		M				W											
Biography		M							W								
			W		M												
Travel			1														
Education																	
Business				M													
Essay																	
Fiction					M		W										
Drama									w								
									M								
ine arts																	V
Science														1	- 1	1	

[•] This table is read as follows: The letter "W" to the right of "philosophy-religion" and in col. I means that more women gave "contact with keener mind" as a motive for reading philosophy-religion than any other motive. The other letters are read in the same way.

it also appeared, but here it ranked eleventh. In the remaining four subjects where it appeared at all it fell below the twentieth place.

A great deal of thought has been devoted by the library world during the past decade to the problem of adult education and the opportunity which the library offers for continuing informal education and for repairing gaps in earlier formal schooling. There is some evidence from the scoring of the item, "to make up for lacks in your schooling," that the interest and concern are one-sided and that the reader does not share them

deeply. The item was checked occasionally in nine fields, but of these only business ranked it as high as twelfth place.

Entering more fields, but not strong in any, was Item 17 (the desire to develop one's personality and to influence others). People read in ten fields for this reason but only in business was it a major motive. Here it had eighth place. In education it was eleventh. In other subjects it ranked from twelfth to

TABLE 6*
THE RANK OF "PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT" AS A MOTIVE SUGGESTED BY MEN AND BY WOMEN FOR READING

Subject																					R	A	Œ																			
FIELD		7			8	1	-	9		I	0	Ī	1	1			32			1	3	1	3	4			15		1	6	I	1	7			15	8	1	9	19		20
Business	1	M	[-						Ī														× ,																
Fiction				١.		 1				V	V	Į,							١.			Į.			.			١.			1										,	
Sociology	١.			١.		 1						1.]	M]	١.			1			. [١.			1							1				
Travel																							N		- 1			1			п			1				1			- 1	
Philosophy-				ı		ı			1			1			1				ı			ı			1				•		T			1	-			1				
religion		٠.		١.		 Į.						ŀ							١.			Į.		۰	.	I	V				Į.		×	è				J.				
Biography		. ,				 1.						1.							1.			1			.	1	N		N	1	1							1.			.1	
History						 L			J			I.			J				١.			I.				ľ	M	١.			1.							L			.	
Science																																				M		1			1	
																																						1		'n	-1	
Fine arts																																							-		-	
Poetry			×			 ŀ		×	٠			ŀ			- 1		. ,	*				ŀ			-1		*	×			1	*	×	٠	*			1		*	٠.	
Essay					*	 Į.			.			١.			٠.				١.			1.			. [1.							1.			. [
Drama						 I.						I.										١.									1.							I.			.1	
Education																																										

This table is read as follows: The letter "M" to the right of "business" and under 7 means that "personality development" was mentioned by the seventh largest number of men as a motive for reading business literature. The letter "W" to the right of "fiction" and under 10 means that "personality development" was mentioned by the tenth largest number of women as a motive for reading business literature. The other letters are read in the same way.

twenty-second. Table 6 shows how the Rochester men and women ranked "personality development" as a motive for reading in the various subject fields.

One of the commonest motives popularly ascribed to reading is "escape." The Rochester data confirmed this for the field of fiction, where that motive had third place. And in travel it reached eighth place, but, recalling the would-be policeman who checked it as a reason for his taking the civil service examinations, one wonders how many of the travel readers likewise took the getting-away literally. Escape appeared as a minor motive in six other fields, hovering around twentieth place in each. Table 7 shows the rank of "escape" in various subject fields.

Curiosity, too, is generally recognized as a moving force in the learning process. It appeared as a reading motive in all the fields where the number of Rochester readers is safe for generalization and in one where it is not. In the latter instance—

TABLE 7*
THE RANK OF "Escape" as a Motive Suggested by
Men and by Women for Reading

SUBJECT FIELD								P	LANE								
SUBJECT TIELD	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Fiction	M	W															
Travel			W			M											
Biography		1		1	0					1		W	M				
Philosophy-reli-															-		
gion														M			
History														M			
Science																	
Fine arts													W			M	
Poetry																	
Essay																	
Drama								111					100				
Education																	
Business																* * *	
Sociology																	

^{*} This table is read as follows: The letter "M" to the right of "fiction" and under 4 means that "escape" was mentioned by the fourth largest number of men as a motive for reading fiction. The letter "W" to the right of "fiction" and under 5 means that "escape" was mentioned by the fifth largest number of women as a motive for reading fiction. The other letters are read in the same way.

drama—it reached its highest rank, a not very trustworthy place, however. It was seventh for travel, eighth for biography and science, ninth for history, tenth for business, and eleventh for fiction and fine arts. It must be taken into consideration wherever reading motives are reckoned with. Table 8 shows the rank of "curiosity" as a motive for reading in various subject fields.

At the beginning of the recent period of economic stress a recurrent claim for library effectiveness appeared throughout the professional apologias: reading would help to fit the individual for another job. Readers of business literature apparently regard this as true; they put the motive in fifth place. Educational readers turn to books with this hope, too; they put it in eighth place. In sociology (the civil service examinations again!) it reached tenth rank; and in science and fine arts,

TABLE 8*

THE RANK OF "CURIOSITY" AS A MOTIVE SUGGESTED BY MEN AND BY WOMEN FOR READING

SUBJECT FIELD	RANK														
SUBJECT FIELD	6	7	8 9	10 11	12 13	14 15									
Sociology				w											
Biography		M and W .													
Travel		M and W .													
Fine arts		W .			M										
Philosophy-religion			W	M											
			М												
T V!	1			1 30											
Business				1											
Word of	1			1 201	227										
Poetry				1											
F)	1		1	1 1											
Drama						1									
E															

This table is read as follows: The letter "M" to the right of "sociology" and in col. I means that "curiosity" was mentioned by the sixth largest number of men as a motive for reading sociology. The letters "M" and "W" to the right of "biography" and in col. 2 mean that "curiosity" was mentioned by the seventh largest number of men and women as a motive for reading sociology. The other letters are read in the same "A".

thirteenth. Nowhere else was it important, though enough wishful thinking fiction readers checked it to make it twenty-third in that field.

Another easily perceptible advantage claimed for reading is that it enables the reader to keep up with new ideas. Business and science readers echoed that claim emphatically—they ranked the motive third in each case. More surprising, perhaps, is the fourth place in which philosophy-religion readers put it. In sociology, education, fiction, fine arts, biography, travel, and history it wandered from fifth to fourteenth place.

Table 9 shows the rank of "keeping up with new ideas" as a motive for reading in various subjects.

Finally, there were two items which reached first rank in one or two specific subject fields, and dropped out of sight in others. The job motive, as seen earlier, was of first importance in business and science. It may be completely disregarded in belles-

TABLE 9*

THE RANK OF "KEEPING UP WITH NEW IDEAS" AS A MOTIVE SUGGESTED BY MEN AND BY WOMEN FOR READING

SUBJECT FIELD		RANK																			
SUBJECT FIELD	1	2	1	1	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	2
Science		W	N	1																	
Business		1	. N	4					1	1											
Fine arts						W				M											
Education		1				W					. ,										
Sociology							W	M													
Philosophy-religion		1					M	1													
Fiction		1				١		W	M			1									
Biography		1							M			W								× ×	
Travel				.]				1		1			M					W			
History										1		1	M								1.
Essay																					
Drama																					
Poetry																					

This table is read as follows: The letter "W" to the right of "science" and in col. 2 means that "keepings up with new ideas" was mentioned by the second largest number of women as a motive for reading science literature. The letter "M" to the right of "science" and in col. 3 means that "keeping up with new ideas" was mentioned by the third largest number of men as a motive for reading science literature. The other letters are read in the same way.

lettres. But for fine arts, education, and sociology it was of definite—though not primary—importance, holding seventh, fifth, and sixth places, respectively. The hobby motive rose to first rank in fine arts; it dropped out of sight in education, essay, and poetry; was almost as slight for philosophy-religion and sociology; had an equivocal position for fiction, travel, history, and business; and a very dubious ranking in drama. In science, however, it jumped back to fifth place. It can be considered truly important in only two fields, therefore.

The power of example, the desire to know and to do what

one's friends do, the advertising by word of mouth—all inherent in Item 5 (to read the books your friends talk about)—were considered weighty only in the case of fiction. This motive reached seventh place in fiction; in the other four fields where it was scored at all it fell to the twentieth place or lower.

Least effective of the twenty general items listed for all the subject fields was the puzzle-contest motive. In no field was the score large enough to be considered significant. It is understood that these interests are episodic and are due, in most cases, to no innate interest in the subject but to the hope of winning the pretentious prizes offered by advertisers. If our investigation had been made at another time of year the number of contestants might have been slightly larger or even smaller than it was.

Almost as negligible was the motive of keeping up with one's study club. Rochester readers of fiction, sociology, philosophyreligion, and history checked this item, but so infrequently as to rank it in twenty-fifth, twenty-fourth, and eighteenth places. In the unequal scoring of such items as recreation and information, on the one hand, and of puzzle-working and study-club assignments, on the other, we have demonstrated a clean-cut distinction in the two kinds of reading compulsions which are fundamentally unlike. The nature of these differences will be considered later.

Sex differences in reading motives.—One of the first details which close inspection of the data reveals is that among readers of belles-lettres women are in the majority whereas men make up the greater part of the factual readers. Within each of these fields certain differences showed which might be ascribed to the sex of the readers rather than to the subject read.

It was observed that Rochester women (1) read more often for recreational and theoretic purposes than did Rochester men, though for both sexes recreation was the most important reason for reading fiction; (2) used books more often for school assignments than did men; (3) were more susceptible to the fact that other people were reading and talking about certain books than

were men; and (4) turned to books for escape more frequently than did men.

Men, on the other hand, (1) used books to increase their fund of general information in more fields than did women; (2) were

TABLE 10

THE RANK ORDER OF THE VARIOUS OCCASIONS AS ASSIGNED BY MEN AND BY WOMEN READERS

Occasions	Man ()	V=859)	Women (N=605)			
OCCASIONS	Rank*	Score	Rank*	Score		
General knowledge	1	358	2	177		
Recreation	2	205	1	230		
Job efficiency	3	202	11	55		
Contact with richer mind	4	183	4	100		
New ideas	5	178	5	97		
Curiosity	6	135	6	78		
Hobby	7	134	10	60		
Preparation for another job	8	101	17	13		
Develop personality	9	88	12.5	46		
Gaps in education	10	80	1.4	33		
Information to others	11	79	8	70		
Escape	12	76	7	77		
School assignment	13	75	3	139		
Directions to make something	14	70	15	23		
Prove an opinion	15	60	12.5	46		
Pass an examination	16	35	20	7		
Friends' reading	17	22	9	66		
Study club	18	15	16	14		
Learn to write	19	12	18	10		
Contest or puzzle	20	2	19	9		

^{*} Spearman Footrule R = .50.

more often prompted in their reading by motives connected with the job, either advancement in the present occupation or finding another job; (3) were somewhat more susceptible to the theory that books may help in developing personality and in repairing gaps in one's early schooling. Table 10 presents the rank order of the various occasions for reading as assigned by men and women readers.

Differences in motives due to education and literary discrimina tion.—No evidence was found in the Rochester data for the belief that purposes change from one stage of scholastic advancement to another, as has been advanced.⁵ There is more reason to believe that certain purposes fluctuate with the reading experience and maturity of the individual, with the discrimination and critical ability he possesses. These, of course, may show more plainly in readers of increased educational opportunity, but sometimes readers with little formal education possess them as well.

Table 11 shows the rank order of the various motives as assigned by men and women readers of fiction when the titles of the books chosen were arranged according to three rather subjective levels of excellence. Men readers of the "superior" type of fiction were sent to books with the initial hope of taking advantage of the author's riper wisdom—practically the only instance of that item's ranking first. Readers of the two lower masculine groups and all women readers put recreation first.

All six groups used books as a means of escape, but the male readers of the least sophisticated type put the item in second place, next in importance to recreation. Unsophisticated readers of both sexes enjoyed the story element in fiction—the thrill and suspense of the plot unfolding—to a greater degree than did the readers of the more sophisticated groups.

Women readers of all three groups attached greater importance to following friends' examples in reading, and the readers who chose the finest type of literature put this motive highest,

making it share first place with recreation.

The data obtained from the three avenues of approach just described rest upon practically the same techniques as have other investigations, i.e., frequency counts of readers' scores. But before too much dependence is placed upon such judgments it must be accepted that (1) the motives checked are discreet

⁵ Mabel Snedaker and Ernest Horn, "Reading in the various fields of the curriculum," in National Society for the Study of Education, *Thirty-sixth yearbook*, Part I (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing, 1937), p. 137.

TABLE 11*

RANK ORDER OF THE VARIOUS MOTIVES AS ASSIGNED BY MEN AND WOMEN READERS OF FICTION WHEN THE FICTION TITLES READ ARE GROUPED INTO THREE CLASSES: SUPERIOR, MEDIUM, AND INFERIOR

			RA	NE					
Motive		Men		Women					
	Superior	Medium	Inferior	Superior	Medium	Inferior			
School assignment	2	2		5	4	3			
Recreation	33	17	3	64	40	10			
Curiosity	9		2	6	5	7			
New ideas	8	1	1	14	15	3			
Friends' reading	6	2	2	21	12	10			
Job efficiency	3	1	1	5	2	1			
Information	17	6	3	23	25	8			
Hobby	6			10	2				
Examination					1				
Get new job	2			X	2				
Study club	1			2		1			
Prove opinion	4		1	5	2				
Tell others	2	1		2	1				
Directions	3								
Learn to write		1		1	3				
Adult education	3		1	6	3	3			
Personality	3	2	2	5	5	5			
Rich contacts	10	3	4	12	14	5			
Escape	20	2	2	18	8	5			
Puzzle or contest				1		1			
Vicarious experience	7			12	2				
Suspense	13	1		14	4	2			
Life problems	2			8	3	1			
Historical scene	11	5	1	11	14	5			
Foreign places	14	5	2	15	15	3			
Human motives	8	2	2	20	16	9			
Saw the movie	8	2		6					
Modern problems	7		2	6	9	3			
N	41	22	. 6	73	56	16			

SPEARMAN FOOTRULE R

Men	Women	Men and Women				
1st-2d level, $R = .39$ 2d-3d level, $R = .46$	sst-2d level, R = .57 2d -3d level, R = .62	ast level, $R = .60$ ad level, $R = .40$				
1st-3d level, R = .48	101-3d level, R = .45	3d level, R = 62				

^{*} This table is read as follows: The figure 2 to the right of "school assignment" and in col. 1 under "superior" means that of the men reading fiction classed as superior the second largest number gave "school assignment" as the motive for reading that fiction. The figure 2 in col. 2 to the right of "school assignment" and under "medium" means that of the men reading fiction titles classed as medium, the second largest number gave "school assignment" as the motive for reading that fiction. The other numbers are read in the same way.

and mutually exclusive; (2) only one motive affects the reading of any single book; and (3) the reader can always determine which motive has influenced him.

FACTORS PREVENTING READERS FROM COMPLETE IDENTI-FICATION OF THEIR READING MOTIVES

The multiplicity of motives attached to the reading act.—Even the most casual inspection of the data reveals that the assumption of single purpose in reading is fallacious. The majority of the readers checked not one but several motives for reading their books. In one case a reader indicated fourteen different reasons, all of them probably genuine, as her explanation substantiates.

It is a true defect of this study that the people who cooperated in it were not asked to show primary and secondary causes for wishing to read the material they borrowed. Case study and individual interviews were not feasible. Moreover, they might have involved incorrect interpretation.

From the data which the Rochester readers did return two confident judgments may be derived: (1) The act of reading in most instances is based upon a desire to achieve several satisfactions. (2) There exists a fundamental difference between the satisfactions which are desired and the occasions which prompt those desires. Both of these points may be elaborated and illustrated.

Among the numerous antithetical expressions in the English language few connote contrast to the average mind more meaningfully than the phrase "work and play." It occurs in all phases of human activity, in the educational world no less than any other. When applying the term to the reading act, educators are likely to use it particularly to contrast reading for recreation with reading for information—activities they regard as fundamentally opposed. The most superficial examination, nevertheless, shows that the distinction is not a real one, since one idea does not exclude the other and both may be present in the same act. The information gained from reading for information may give the keenest pleasure to the reader and afford

him relaxation as well; while reading for the single purpose of the enjoyment to be derived thereby must necessarily involve the acquisition of some information, even though the information be false and the mind take no action on the thing learned.

For example, in the field of fine arts twenty people in Rochester said they wished to read the material they borrowed because they wanted to know about the theory and products of certain schools and periods of art. This entailed the acquiring of special information for specific purposes. Of these twenty only one failed to check also both the recreational and the general informational items, which are general motives extending through all the subject fields.

If, then, we are unable to set aside into separate compartments two so-called opposite purposes in reading, how much less success may we expect with purposes which admittedly parallel or modify each other. To illustrate: About 20 per cent of all the returns indicated that the reading motive of the Rochester library patrons was to increase their vision and to deepen their understanding by contact with a richer mind. Many of these readers were also in the larger group (36 per cent of all the readers) who indicated that their purpose was to gain general information, regardless of the source or how gained. Again: In the subject group with the largest number of readers participating—fiction—escape was the purpose which ranked below only recreation and general information. Seventy of the 260 readers said escape was their reason for enjoying a novel; and only 6 of these did not check also either the recreational or the informational items, or both. Only I of the 6 checked the escape item alone. Fourth place in the fiction field was held by the item relating to reading about people in other places—69 individuals, or 21 per cent of the group, checked it. Only 2 of these checked the item alone, and only 6 checked it who did not also score recreation and/or information. Fifth place was held by Item 26, covering the satisfactions derived from reading about human motives and conduct in fiction; only 2 of the 64 readers said they had no other motives in reading the novels.

The ready suspicion may arise that the motives listed were not sufficiently distinguishable to result in true reporting by the readers; or that they were not even true motives but rather rationalizations on the part of the investigator. Counterpoise to this doubt is the fact that (1) librarians in daily contact with readers the country over had recorded most of the items as purposes which sent their patrons to the library for books; (2) from pulpit, press, and school have issued for a long period exhortations to people to read, which have stressed not one but many benefits to be derived; (3) the individual's own experience includes many instances where reading undertaken for a single purpose resulted in several subsidiary satisfactions. The overlapping observed in the scoring is more probably only that which is inherent in the reading act itself and therefore inescapable.

So in any form of recreational reading pursued with the main intention of enjoyment, there will inevitably be an accompaniment of information and, almost as inevitably, of several other by-products as well, depending upon the particular type of book which has value in the reader's eyes. D. C. Griffiths clarifies this process somewhat in his comment on what goes on in the reader's mind as he reads *Kim*, when he "absorbs" information about a fact in which he is not primarily interested:

Though I am interested in India, and willing to learn more about the life of its people, I read Kim, not for this reason, but because it is a good story. My curiosity is only part of a general desire to know more of experience beyond the limits of my own environment. While and after reading Kim, I imagine, more clearly than before, the hubbub of an Eastern bazaar; it appears as if I were present at that strange place, as if I, as well as Kim, could see and hear what was going on. I am, therefore, gratified mostly because I enjoy the story and feel sympathy with Kim's independence, but also because I feel that my range of experience has been widened.

We conclude with this author that a reader probably turns to a novel with the main purpose of recreation in mind, but that the reading often involves many rich by-products which he

⁶ The psychology of literary appreciation: a study in psychology and education ("Educational research series," No. 13 [Melbourne: Melbourne University Press, 1932]), pp. 19-20.

willingly accepts and, though none may have been his original incentive for reading, all combine to form the thing which provides the enjoyment.

This should not lead to the conclusion that there were no Rochester readers who scored single items. If temporarily we disregard the school-assignment motive, we find readers in each field, ranging from 17 per cent in philosophy-religion to 37 per cent in education, who registered only one motive. The items most heavily scored by these single-purpose readers were: for fiction, recreation; for biography, general information; for travel, the visit, past or future, to strange countries; for history, giving information to others; for sociology, general information and passing of examinations; for philosophy-religion, job efficiency (largely by ministers and salesmen) and giving information to others; for education, giving information to others; for business, job efficiency; for science, job efficiency; for fine arts, the hobby. In six of these ten classes the dominating motive of the single-purpose readers was that of the multiple-choice readers also; in two of the remaining classes occupational interests were plainly visible. It is possible that these readers, having indicated their primary purposes, were not sufficiently interested or analytic to say wherein other satisfactions lay.

This goes far toward establishing confidence in the final scores earlier totaled for the items, but even more strongly the multiple choice of the majority of the readers points to the conviction that it is not possible to count motives as one does the temperature degrees etched on a thermometer nor to say of one purpose that it is twice as strong as another, since one may be implicit in the other. Hatfield ventured the opinion that the blending of reading motives into one another is like the colors of the spectrum or of the sunset. But motives are hardly so evenly blended and so easily discernible as the colors of the spectrum; nor is the sunset analogy more faithful. It might be said with more exactness and truth that the blending of reading motives resembles the mountain parks in which many species of flowers run riot, some in profusion, others in solitary state,

⁷ Op. cit., p. 100.

with here and there a clump of one species making a single

spot of color in the landscape.

The occasions for reading.—Even greater difficulty was experienced by the Rochester readers in distinguishing between the occasions which had sent them to books and the satisfactions which they expected to derive from the reading. The two are not identical but play roles of cause and effect. They are not of equal "drive"; under some circumstances the occasion is stronger than the satisfaction sought; under others, the satisfaction may be so imperative as to create its own occasion. One is an external of time, place, or individual circumstance; the other is a universal tendency, an inner urge or compulsion. The one may be so special and limited that no other literate person would be moved by it; the other is a craving to which all more or less respond.

Every librarian and bookseller can cite instance after instance of the impetus given to reading because the weather turns disagreeable, because a radio broadcast is unexpectedly convincing and terrifying, because a title is carelessly or purposely mentioned in a lecture, because a romantic prince abdicates his throne, or because a helpless country is annexed by a stronger state. They can point not to one but to several individuals whose reading is occasioned by physical disability, personality defect, or poor economic status—persons who turn to reading to compensate for the satisfactions denied them in everyday life.

These are somewhat common in all library experience, but the individual occasion may be unique to the stage of absurdity, as the letter published in the March 26, 1938, issue of the *Pub*lishers' weekly indicates. It read, in part:

Fellow walked in and said "I want that book" and pointed to the new Random House edition of "Hajji Baba." As he wrote his check for \$3.50 he said, "You know I never read. I'm getting this book for my 16-month-old baby. Years ago I decided if I ever had a kid I'd never name him Joe or John or any common name like that. So I called my kid Taj. That book has a picture on the cover that looks like the Taj Mahal and I want to show the kid so he'll know what he's named after."

⁸ P. 1376.

In the list of items submitted to the Rochester readers a few of the more common occasions were included to illustrate this double phase of motivation when, in the opinon of the validating librarians, they were encountered often enough at the library desk to be taken into serious account. Beyond this it was not feasible to go, because to carry the identification of an individual occasion to its narrowest extreme is to limit it almost entirely to the person of whom it is true. However, the readers were invited to append to the list any motive not included which was true of the individual's own case.

Of the first 20 general items printed on all the 13 subject forms, 5 were unmistakably occasions for reading: school assignments, passing examinations, study-club reading, passing information along to others, and puzzle-contest reading. All are personal rather than political or cosmic in circumstance. Two other motives—proving an opinion and escape—are open to interpretation as either occasion of or satisfaction from reading, depending upon the intent of the individual reader. In the special motives limited to one subject only there were 22 occasions in the 13 groups: 1 each in fiction, essay, biography, sociology, philosophy-religion, education, travel, science; 2 in drama; 3 in fine arts; 4 in poetry; 5 in business; and none in history.

In each of these items of occasion we should rightfully expect that the number of readers checking it would be considerably smaller than the number checking items which represent universal satisfactions. And this was true of the two major satisfactions—recreation and general information—and of other satisfactions as well as in the total scores throughout the subject fields. Only the school assignment proved important in most of these, but other occasions ranked high in one or two subject fields though they sank out of sight in the rest. Some of the occasions were responsible also for the single scores that were checked by from 17 to 37 per cent of the readers in the various fields, especially by those checking the school assignment, the examination, the giving of information to others, the contest, and the debate items—little if any interest was betrayed in the information itself. But where the occasion was peculiar to one

field only, e.g., the moving-picture item in fiction, it seldom represented a single check by the reader. Here it was a clear incentive for plainly indicated satisfactions. Table 12 shows the

TABLE 12

Percentage of All Readers in General and in Special Subject Fields Mentioning Various Occasions for Reading

Subject Field	Occasions	Percentage
General	School assignment	20.32
General	Give information to others	11.55
General	Escape	8.19
General	Prove/disprove an opinion	6.50
General	Pass an examination	2.41
General	Keep up with study club	1.92
General	Enter contest-work puzzle	. 51
Drama	Member of a theater group	28.00*
Poetry	Write poetry	24.00*
Business	Want to invest money	18.00
Science	Solve a technical problem	17.00
Education	Choose a school	11.00
Fine arts	Want new ideas for design	11.00
Fiction	Saw story in movies or theater	9.52
Travel	Establish a business elsewhere	8.00
Drama	Saw play at movies or theater	6.89*
Biography	Read the subject's book	6.79
Business	Locate new markets	6.67
Business	Open a new business	5.92
Fine arts	Follow a score at a concert	4.00
Poetry	Put a poem to music	4.00
Poetry	For entertainment	4.00
Poetry	Heard poem over radio	4.00*
Business	Prepare advertising copy	3.70
Business	Set up a special account	2.22
Sociology	Prepare for citizenship	2.68
Philosophy-religion	Believe in dreams, stars, etc.	1.00
Essay	Essays are short	0.00
Fine arts	Give a party or entertainment	0.00

The number of readers in drama and in poetry was so small as to make doubtful these percentages.

percentage of all readers in general and in special subjects mentioning various occasions for reading.

Most of the occasions for reading—the school world apart—applied to a relatively small number of readers, in many cases

to only one. However, since they sometimes take their origin from social milieu and group pressure as well as from personal exigencies, any occurrence known to or affecting a large number of persons may induce a craving for similar satisfactions in a large proportion of these. The occasions for reading may, therefore, be very important for the librarian's consideration.

The satisfactions of reading.—Prompted by these occasions and proximate causes, the Rochester readers turned to books, as is indicated by the items they checked and the other items they appended, in search of two major and overlapping satisfactions—for information and for recreation. Each has its own forms of gratification. In search of the first of these—information—were such readers, on the one hand, as a boy with car repairs to make, a woman with a vase to sell, a physician who needed the address of a lawyer-acquaintance in another city; and on the other, a larger number who made such general statements as: "I am a young bride and feel I should know more about life," "To attempt to find the meaning of life—if there be one," and "To enlarge one's information about a subject he is interested in."

It is evident that two distinct types of information acquisition may be observed: (1) information based on a limited, specific, and recognizable purpose usually practical, which may or may not recur; and (2) information based on a conviction that reading is a valuable experience which results in a body of general knowledge that can be drawn on as future occasion demands. The readers for specific information, it is also clear, are largely conditioned by the immediate occasions which prompt them. They are strongly represented among those who checked only one item. If they constituted the whole of the reading population, the problem of uncovering reading motives would be simple.

Far more common, it is thought, is reading for the purpose of acquiring general information which, though directed at no immediate need, satisfies curiosity, gratifies the desire for self-improvement, panders to the hope of knowing as much as one's fellows, and indulges one's interest in himself. A feeling of secur-

ity and sufficiency is engendered thereby which a single disappointing experience does not destroy (as it can the satisfaction of the seeker for specific information); for if one satisfaction be lacking in the book, others may take its place. If none should be present, earlier experiences were more fruitful, so the contact with books is not terminated. Such reading may be planned or desultory, long range or incidental, limited in scope or embracing all fields of knowledge. With the Rochester readers the acquisition of general information was the item most often paralleling the major purpose where it did not itself outrank all others.

In some respects the need for general information is similar to that for recreation. Both go back to man's psychological nature-to his reactions to acts, situations, and objects in his life experiences. These reactions psychologists of another generation called instincts and emotions. Today we hear of "emotional tendencies," "wishes," or "dependable motives." Thus Thomas and Znaniecki, describing, it is true, a very limited group—the Polish peasant—speak of four "wishes" which they believe condition their subjects' social and personal reactions: (1) the desire for new experience, for fresh stimulations; (2) the desire for recognition, including, for example, sexual response and general social appreciation, and secured by devices ranging from the display of ornament to the demonstration of worth through scientific attainment; (3) the desire for mastery, or the "will to power," exemplified by ownership, domestic tyranny, political despotism, based on the instinct of hate, but capable of being sublimated to laudable ambition; (4) the desire for security, based on the instinct of fear and exemplified negatively by the wretchedness of the individual in perpetual solitude or under social taboo.9

The reading act is related to these desires; the same "drives" condition individuals who turn to books searching for satisfactions denied them elsewhere. First of these is the capacity and urge to learn. In satisfying this the book contributes a larger share than does any other agency. In fact, since man left the primitive state the book has been synonymous with the learning act, as being an economic and convenient device providing

⁹ W. I. Thomas and Florian Znaniecki, The Polish peasant in Europe and America (New York: Knopf, 1927), I, 73.

a scope and range of information impossible from any other medium. Man's first purpose in turning to it is to be informed.

Nature has endowed man with a whip to flog him along this path of learning—the Polish "desire for recognition." In the reading act it takes the form of reading toward improvement on the job, advancement in position and power; at other times, it is an attempt to remedy, by reading, conditions which put the individual at a disadvantage before others and so to bolster up his sense of worth.

Man is also provided with emotional responses to fit the occasions in his life when terror, rage, laughter, love, and sympathy for others move him. But the occasions in his life when certain of these emotions are aroused are not sufficiently numerous to satisfy him, so he looks about for situations outside himself with which to identify himself and feed his feeling of self-sufficiency and mastery. The satisfaction of experiencing at second hand the actions and successes of fictitious characters supplies the thrill he vainly seeks from reality. The principal fabric of which cinema plot, novel, poem, biography, or travel account is made is the puppet man subduing other puppets or nature—loving, fighting, greatly daring, and inevitably conquering. In the puppet's actions the reader sees his own; in the manikin's emotional debauch he indulges himself.

Involved in this emotional titillation is the desire for information, too—emotional information which can be stored away against such time as the real emotion may be awakened in the reader. "What does it feel like to lose one close and dear?" we ask, and we observe the pupper's reactions. "What must be a man's thoughts when he wins against heavy odds to the goal he has set?" "How do parents think and feel when their children come to disgrace?" It is not factual information that is wanted but the effect of these upon the individuals' emotions. Conceivably the reader may be in these people's places sometime, so he reads about them now without any immediate or specific need in mind. The part that emotional need plays in the reading act and the times it is responsible for the reader's vague statement, "Because I think the book is interesting," cannot be overem-

phasized. The younger and more naïve the reader the greater his general desire to know, because the more restricted his life experience. As life, observation, or reading brings the answers, the circle of his emotional-informational needs gradually closes, and the number of new experiences possible vicariously becomes smaller and smaller. And so he arrives at a stage when novel, play, or life holds few if any new emotional observations. Before that can happen, however, a depth of emotional understanding will have been plumbed which would be quite impossi-

ble in real-life experience.

A less powerful response, but one nevertheless easily discernible, is man's use of reading for purposes of relaxation and escape. In the latter, we have a temporary mental expedient employed during time of stress (probably because reading is a habitual act with that individual) which fades into other motives when the period is over. In the former, we find rather escape from muscular exertion or retreat from human kind or from impacts of other personalities which drain nervous energy from the individual. Here the tired mind and wearied body recover strength, poise, and sanity after an hour or two of reading. This is directly in line with a basic urge toward change, a change which discharges tension, to which many psychologists call attention. Hobbies, corresponding to man's urge to play, represent another form of this tendency, although there is likely to be involved here an active co-operation of intellect and muscles which is not characteristic of relaxation as such. Hobby-reading also touches upon the mastery tendency. More than any other, perhaps, this trait illustrates the multiple tendencies which a single reading act may imply.

In addition to the two primal urges for information and recreation, it is usually accepted that there is an aesthetic and an in tellectual satisfaction to be obtained in reading. Aesthetic pleas ure is thought to be concerned with the enjoyment of beautiful sound, of combinations of words, of the images evoked by both. It calls for an appreciation of the balanced phrase, the use of sonorous or lilting words, the magnificent sweep of an idea through its development to its climax—not for the logic displayed but for sheer beauty of thought and structure. It de-

mands a pleased recognition of the original and unstereotyped figure of speech and allusion such as comes when the reader, stalking heavily through Mellen's uninspired verse, is surprised by the line: "High over all the lonely bugle grieves."

In aesthetic appreciation, as in intellectual appreciation, an element enters which is antithetical to the reading purposes earlier considered. In reading for information or emotional excitement the reader projects himself into the text and takes an active part in the development of the theme, perhaps as a result of his tendency to self-assertion. But in aesthetic enjoyment he remains on the side lines and praises the beauty of the concept, while his intellect applauds the craftsmanship by which the effect was produced.

The essence of the intellectual satisfaction derived is exercise of the critical faculty. Thus some readers, at the same time that they are satisfying their curiosity or arousing their emotions, are keenly alert to the logic displayed by the writer in developing his thesis. The pleasure so obtained is a thing apart from the information, and the development of such pleasure in the reader is a much later growth than any of the others, including aesthetics. It develops unequally in individuals, depending probably upon their intellectual powers, training, and reading perience. Some never read for this purpose.

Occasions apart, it is evident that the broadest classification possible of the satisfactions derived from reading (and therefore of the motives for such reading) involves four phases: information, recreation, aesthetics, and critical appreciation. Two of these, information and recreation, illustrate man's propensity to experience vicariously what he cannot or will not achieve in real life. The other two satisfactions arise from a consideration of the success with which this vicarious experience is presented for his enrichment and enjoyment. The latter are not identified in the Rochester data, except as their presence is implied in the ranking of readers in the third level of fiction materials read. But, as was brought out earlier, broad classifications help the librarian but little. What is needed is such minute description as will put the unknown reader into his category unmistakably. Hence minor pleasures, the various kinds of satisfactions, and a

great deal of exact information about the reader must be known, too. This involves, however, a degree of self-analysis and the establishment of numerous psychological factors which are difficult for the ordinary reader to supply about himself.

CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY

The review of the Rochester data and of the psychological theories regarding motives for reading supports the initial assumption of this study: That whenever a reader comes to the library "for something to read" it is well to ask why he wants it. A score of people asking for the same sort of material will want it for as many purposes and will need as many different treatments of the subject to suit them. One man may want a book for a half-dozen different reasons. Or the same reader may use the same magazine or book in different ways at different times.

As far as the individual is a typical member of his group, certain generalizations may be confidently made about his reading motives. For example, examination of the most heavily scored items in the various subject fields shows a definite correspondence between subject matter and the primary purpose in the groups reading about the subject. It is evident that fiction is read by most Rochester people for recreation; fine arts for hobby-riding; and business and science for occupation assans. But a wide fringe of readers read for other purposes as well, and the individual reader may just as often be a member of this minority; or a member of the major group may just as often be influenced by a combination of other items also. These subsidiary satisfactions must be uncovered and reduced to their true importance as minor purposes now covered by the major subject motives before we shall know all we wish to know about reading motives.

For both the group and the individual the Rochester data provide sufficient evidence to justify the belief that the dominating motives which embrace all subject fields in all types of reading are: (1) information-getting, both for the solution of immediate, limited problems and for the understanding of social and personal conditions sometimes already present and sometimes not specifically foreseen at the time of reading; (2) recreating

tion, with its implication primarily of emotional satisfaction and secondarily of relaxation, escape, identification of self, sympathy for others, and general information; (3) aesthetic appreciation of the artistically beautiful in books; and (4) critical understanding of the effect produced by the book. All of these are thought to govern choice of what is enjoyably read. We surmise that the second of the four dominating motives is more powerful with women readers than the first and that with men readers the opposite is true. For the third and fourth motives we know only that they represent growth processes and that they operate by selecting from the mass of literary experiences those which give meaning and significance to life for the individual, that they are not identified with single emotional or informational satisfactions but with all of them as they contribute toward this selectivity. For the intellectually mature they represent an urge which increases with exercise until they become the first consideration in literary choice. The basic differences in the relative strength of their appeal probably bear no relation to sex but are more likely affected by the reading level of the individual, although the evidence of the Rochester readers is not conclusive on this point.

Once the dominating motive of the four has been established it is still necessary to identify the occasion which has prompted interest in the subject and the satisfaction which is likely to be derived. Since these may have started far back in some trait of the reader's personality or in some real or vicarious experience, the answer is not easily obtained. Eventually we must know more about the part that occasions play in inducing reading interest, particularly about how lasting their effect is. We suspect that where the occasion is short-lived, interest is also. There may be cited the increase of fiction-reading during the peak of the depression, an increase which, as the Lynds showed in Middletown, of dwindled away as the financial crisis cleared.

But before the lasting interest in such reading or the permanency of the occasion which induces reading can be tested we shall have to identify as large a number of these occasions as can

¹⁰ R. S. and H. M. Lynd, *Middletown in transition* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1937), p. 253.

be shown to affect group-reading. Once the degree of response from national and local happenings, from personal idiosyncrasies repeated elsewhere in others, from social pressures frequently encountered, has been discovered and tested for various parts of the country, the librarian will have a third determinant to add to the subject-interest and reader-identity factors which he now takes into consideration when ordering books for a community group. He will never be able to prepare completely in advance for the highly individual occasion which sends the single reader to his library, because it is impossible to foresee traits unless they show themselves in groups. But since occasions are thought to repeat themselves only with regard to certain stable factors, like the job, this is not an important matter. (Cf. the likelihood of another request for material on the Taj Mahal prompted by the reason which sent the young father to the bookstore.) For group-reading it is another matter. Hence this writer earnestly hopes that there may be made, not too far in the future, such a preliminary study based on the distinction between occasion and satisfaction which has been analyzed in this investigation—a study which will identify the various group occasions more completely than this investigation could undertake.

If we accept the theory that nearly all reading is done for vicarious experience it may seem unfortunate that much reading of inferior materials is done; that certain subjects like education and history are read for an artificial purpose (the school assignment) instead of for a genuine personal satisfaction; that other subjects are read for the cruder substitutions of improbable, adventurous experience rather than for significant and true experience. But the truism of librarianship holds good here: we deal with the reader first and then with the book-with the reader in all stages of informational, emotional, and critical readiness. Though they are driven by the same urges, men are at different stages of critical ability and aesthetic appreciation of what is truly significant, because of differences in life experience, in reading experience, and in the delicacy and soundness of their critical processes. Hence the account which might satisfy one reader as an authentic glimpse into another's emotional crisis

or as a profound and logical development of a psychological theory would repel a discriminating reader whose knowledge is more comprehensive.

This does not mean that the naïve reader gains nothing in the process, but simply that he gains less—which may be all he is ready for in all events. For, as Howard Mumford Jones has remarked in another connection, it the poorest of our trashy novels also serves to point out the fact that there are primal qualities of good and evil in the world; and even though the development of this thesis be far from the immature reader's thought when he takes up the book, this subsidiary return comes to him also. But because all readers do not enjoy equally well having the primal qualities of good and evil depicted for them and because some expect the nuances of human character to show, too, it follows that the librarian must know in which group the reader stands, i.e., what constitutes information or recreation or aesthetic quality for him and what by-products of each are expected. In general, the richer the book is in what the individual likes to add to his general store of information, the better he likes it; and the more significant and true to his own aesthetic experience, the better the critical reader likes it.

If we accept the search for vicarious experience as the fundamental urge, we can more fully understand why motives overlap in the reading process, since in a single real-life act or situation many satisfactions may be involved. Nevertheless, that same single real-life experience is usually dominated by a major

impulse, no matter what others accompany it.

From this theory of vicarious participation, also, we get fuller understanding of why reading motives do not lend themselves readily to verbal labeling and ranking—too many elusive, subjective factors are involved. Like the Old Man of the Sea, the same character changes shape too often. What is recreation for one reader is hard work for another, depending solely upon the urge for mastery. What the reader labels "escape" may be either occasion or satisfaction, and we cannot depend on him to distinguish which for us. When a man is earnestly engaged in

[&]quot;"The place of books and reading in modern society," Bulletin of the American Library Association, XXVII (1933), 585.

developing a hobby he may be actuated by the play or recreational impulse or by the desire for change and new experience or by the desire for either specific or general information or by a wish to improve his skill and technique or by an aesthetic wish to express himself in artistic media or by all of these reasons at one and the same time. One or all these reasons may have been originally prompted by some obscure desire for mastery, occasioned perhaps as a result of maladjustment in the social world, perhaps as compensation for another skill denied him. Who can say from his scoring of listed items which of these looms largest for his satisfaction and which is most important for the librarian's consideration? All contribute their part in the pattern of his reading act.

It must be repeated that the scoring of single items will not distinguish the true differences in men's reading motives. Nor is it enough to say that all are prompted by a single dominant motive which has in its train a host of subordinate purposes resulting from the readers' emotional cravings. Several individuals may be prompted by the same dominant motive, and yet their needs may be very different. Just as the medical specialist sometimes finds himself baffled by pathological conditions readily apparent to the general practitioner who knows thoroughly the patient's history, so the librarian attempting to isolate one trait without regard for the reader's whole personality is likely to go astray. The answer, rather, lies in the individual's personality, in his history, and in his plans for the future.

Separate tests, therefore, seem imperative before the question of reading motivation is completely answered. These tests should attempt to point out essential differences in external occasions for reading and in satisfactions derived, based upon essential differences in men's intellectual capacity, emotional cravings, and social strata, and, combined, they should show the relationship which each of these bears to the whole. Then we should know what proportion of importance to assign to such motives as friends' example and conversation, to curiosity and the desire for escape, to superior critical powers, and to wider life experience. The part the reader's personal and literary background plays; how much his age, sex, education, and occupa-

tion contribute; how much the socioeconomic group among whom he moves influences him; when his avocations prompt him; and, more than all these, perhaps, how deeply his ambitions and frustrations color his reading—all these will be taken into proportionate consideration, and from this pattern the true picture of his reading motives should be revealed.

This is not an easy task, nor is the proper method for accomplishing it at once perceptible. It is possible that techniques may be borrowed or adapted from the educational world or that researchers in psychological method will aid in identifying the intangibles attached to the reading motive. For example, the Employment Stabilization Research Institute of the University of Minnesota, under the direction of M. R. Trabue, experimented early in the depression period with a series of aptitude, personality, and intelligence tests which in combination proved sufficiently effective to permit the Adjustment Service of the American Association of Adult Education to use them in its employment service.¹² Thurstone and his colleagues are now at work upon the isolation of the primary mental abilities in an attempt to account for individual differences in human ability.¹³

If the elaborate battery of tests these psychologists are now trying out proves to be as valid and as well calibrated as, say, the intelligence tests which their predecessors made practicable for us, it may well be that comparable multiple-factor methods can be worked out for the identification of reader motives. It is to be hoped that they may, since the scoring of single traits or the scoring of occasions and satisfactions alone does not provide adequate information for the librarian who wishes to give assistance to the reader searching for books. Until such methodology is worked out and tested, however, the librarian might well keep in mind such factors as the multiple motives which may be prompting the patron's search, the relative compulsion of the occasion of his need, and the gratifications he may expect from his reading.

¹³ G. L. Bergen et al., Use of tests in the Adjustment Service ("Adjustment Service series," No. 4 [New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1935]).

¹³ L. L. Thurstone, *Primary mental abilities* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938).

TAKING THE LIBRARY TO THE WORKER

WALTER H. KAISER

JOB training for skilled workers and apprentices on construction projects is a part of the educational program of the Tennessee Valley Authority for the same reason that it is a part of the educational program of many large industries—namely, to increase job efficiency. A construction schedule, spreading over eleven years and requiring large numbers of skilled workers, has made job training a practical and economical policy. This program requires the assistance of printed and visual materials which are supplied by the library located at the site of construction. The proximity of the library, the instructor, the worker, and the job is an unusual condition which is most favorable for the librarian to explore the possibilities of library service to the worker. Such a condition exists at Chickamauga Dam, a TVA project now under construction on the Tennessee River, seven miles from Chattanooga, Tennessee.

To understand how the library at Chickamauga Dam serves the job-training program a brief description of the program is necessary. Basically, the purpose of any job-training program is to further the project by increasing the technical knowledge and skill of the individual workman. The method of job training used at Chickamauga Dam may be described as the project method. The work in the classroom is so timed that the workmen are given helpful information on the job assignment only

a few weeks before it is to be done on the project.

For example, the electricians met many times to hear a thorough presentation and discussion of the problems involved in making the switchyard structure ready to carry electricity. From the tunnel carrying the conduit and cable to the switchhouse and control-room, all phases of the electricians' problems involved in this job were thrashed out in the classroom. As a result, when this work actually began, the men were prepared

to do the job with understanding and efficiency. Further, the classes may be compared with a clinic, for problems from the job come to the classroom. One knotty problem, for example, puzzled several carpenters who brought the question to the class, saying: "Here we have a circle with the radius known. We need to locate five points on its circumference. How can we do it in a hurry and do it right?"

The project method at once fuses knowledge and the application of that knowledge to daily problems; what is learned today is used tomorrow. To the journeyman this technique appeals, for he now goes to the classroom with actual problems, where heretofore he was urged to go—but infrequently went—to prepare himself generally for some future problems. Theoretically, there is much to be said for both types of approach, but practically, where job training is optional, the less formal and more direct relationship of what is done in the classroom to the job is the kind of education the skilled workers at Chickamauga Dam have preferred.

To the classroom come the safety engineer, who gives safety instruction applicable to specific crafts—such as the carpenters', electricians', and machinists'; the project accountant, who stresses the importance of costs, again, as they are affected by the individual crafts; the doctor, who talks of health hazards in specific jobs and how to avoid them; and the personnel director, who discusses TVA's personnel policies as they apply to concrete situations. In all this the instruction is specific, directed toward the goal of a more efficient job through an increased knowledge and awareness on the part of the workman. Such an educational program is an effective tool of management.

What is the relationship of the library to such a program? Obviously, this type of job training is a highly co-operative venture, dependent for its success on the best efforts of many. The library touches it wherever books, catalogs, pamphlets, blueprints, and visual aids can be used to reinforce, expand, and supplement the instruction. Of course, this idea is not new. However, it is the selection and the application of these materials that differentiate the degrees of effective library service.

It is not easy to correlate library materials with a job-training program concerned with several crafts. As one experienced librarian has commented, "Job-training supervisors and librarians have often found it difficult to establish effective working relationships between job-training activities and the library." Among several reasons given for this condition are that (1) workers are accustomed to learning by word of mouth and by experience on the job, while the library uses printed materials, a source not usually thought of by the unbookish; (2) the printed materials available are not always well suited to the needs; and (3) librarians, understanding little of the subject content of the crafts, are unable to produce the best available material.

When the Chickamauga Dam job-training program was getting under way, the librarian went before each group of workers and talked to them about the services of the library. To the carpenters he talked of the available books, periodicals, catalogs, pamphlets, and blueprints relating to their craft and to the job; with the structural ironworkers he discussed the few but necessary printed books and useful trade handbooks; and he followed a similar procedure with the electricians, the welders, and the machinists. After he had spoken, the workers asked questions and made valuable suggestions about books on their crafts. These books were later added to the collection and have made the library more effective.

It is desirable for the librarian to talk to the workers in groups or, better still, individually if he is to learn what the workers themselves want and can use. To appear only once before these groups is not enough. As one job-training man says, "Craftsmen learn by repetition" (not unlike most of us). It is necessary to go again and again before them to talk about books and the crafts and how the use of books can lead to increased skill on the job. The head of a technical department in a public library

¹ M. U. Rothrock, "Library service," in M. F. Seay (ed.), Adult education: a part of a total educational program (Bull. University of Kentucky, Bureau of School Service, Vol. X, No. 4), p. 138.

recommends a similar persistent procedure, but he had to use lists to reach the workmen.²

Talks with the workmen at Chickamauga Dam uncovered many suggestions about materials which were useful to the librarian and to the workers. In their years of practical experience the workmen will have used at some time manufacturers' catalogs which proved helpful. For example, one of the few books which bears directly on the work of riggers is the handbook, Wire rope users' handbook, issued by the American Cable Company. This information was obtained from a rigger. Another rigger recommended the Bluejackets' manual, issued by the United States Naval Institute, as having much practical information on his trade. In the case of the Wire rope users' handbook neither the comprehensive United States catalog nor the Booklist includes this title. The experience in this and in other similar situations bears out a statement made by Mary U. Rothrock, TVA library supervisor: "Apparently also our library tools of book listing and selection do not reflect fully and promptly the printed materials available in these specialized fields [job training]."3 And how many librarians are well enough acquainted with the rigger's craft or with its technical literature to call such a title to mind?

One machinist spoke out, saying: "You can't learn to read blueprints with only a book on the subject. Do you have any sample blueprints?" Fortunately, this problem had arisen before and we had sample job blueprints available for circulation. To what extent blueprints are made available by libraries or what problems are involved in securing them in the community, the writer does not know, but an experiment to determine the demand for and availability of this type of material might prove worth while. Our experience indicates that the workers are eager to borrow blueprints from the library. Electricians, if

² R. J. Schunk, "Development of technology service in a community," *Library journal*, LXI (1936), 475-78.

³ "The library in relation to adult education," in L. R. Wilson (ed.), The role of the library in adult education: papers presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, August 2-13, 1937 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937), pp. 22-23.

given the opportunity, will ask for the catalogs of the electricalequipment manufacturers because these catalogs deal clearly and simply with relays, oil circuit breakers, and other equipment with which they are working. Without disparaging the considerable contribution that the job-training supervisors make to book selection, we found that more can be learned from the men themselves.

A small beginning has been made on another important aspect of library service to craftsmen. It concerns the classification of our trade materials. Generally speaking, our material is already classified but not in sufficient detail. An essential tool for relating library materials to a craft is the job analysis. E. M. Reed. TVA supervisor of job training, pointedly remarks, "The job analysis is the common meeting ground for job training and library service." Heretofore, few craftsmen have seen job analyses of their own crafts, and it is frequently a new experience for them to see the subject content of their crafts unfolded before them, step by step. Suggestions for overcoming weaknesses and for adding information on new developments will occur to many by close study of the job analysis. We are taking the analyses which Mr. R. W. Klee, job-training supervisor at Chickamauga Dam, has prepared for the following crafts: carpenters, electricians, steam fitters, ironworkers, construction and gas Diesel machinists, and the linemen crafts of the Department of Operations. With this subject breakdown of a craft we are able to relate available material to each division or subdivision of the craft analysis. The assistance of the jobtraining supervisor and of a skilled journeyman will be necessary for a selection of useful references. This procedure has revealed gaps in our collection—some of which can be filled, others for which no printed material can be found-and it has been an educational process for all involved in the selection. Let us take one section of the job analysis of the electrician's craft and list the materials bearing on the specific topics.4

⁴ Prepared by R. W. Klee, TVA job-training supervisor, Chickamauga Dam.

ELECTRICIAN CRAFT ANALYSIS

II. Maintenance

A. Permanent

1. Shopwork

- 1. Croft, Practical electricity (621.3), pp. 337-72
- 2. Youngstown Sheet and Tube Co., Buckeye conduit (trade catalog), pp. 72-84
 - Croft, American electricians' handbook (621.302), pp. 251-433

b) Motor

(2) Bearings

(3) Commutator

(4) Fields

- 1. Moreton, D. P., Armature winding
- 2. Eastman Kodak Co., "Induced currents"
- (1) Armature { 3. Carr, A-C motor rewinding and reconnecting (621.3133)
 - 4. Bishop, Alternating currents for technical students (621.3133), pp. 23-25, 38

1. Croft, American electricians' handbook (621.302), p. 365

- 2. Fox, Principles of electric motors and control (621.313), pp. 211-15
- Eastman Kodak Co., "Induced currents" (film)

2. Croft, American electricians' handbook (621.302), pp. 287-92

- 3. Croft, Practical electricity (621.3), pp. 390-402
- Annett, Electrical machinery (621.312), pp. 165-69
- Croft, American electricians' handbook (621.302), pp. 282-87
- Fox, Principles of electric motors and control (621.313), pp. 209-10
- 3. Croft, Practical electricity (621.3), pp. 373-60
- 4. Annett, Electrical machinery (621.312), pp. 160-65

Note.—It will be seen that a book, a trade catalog or handbook, and a film are the types of references listed.

Supplying paged references is a service which Mr. Clem O. Thompson approves. Speaking before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago in 1937, he said:

Our present greatest need is for adequately prepared materials. Librarians have been carrying on adult education for years. They will continue in this service. The more pointed problem material they can secure and make easily available, the more they will be successful. Until adequate materials are available, librarians can render further assistance by preparing pertinent, paged bibliographies on problems of interest to their constituents. They have been doing this in many centers. May we have more of it!

We found it expedient, if not necessary, to list paged references on the smaller units of the crafts. Not until the correlation of library materials with the subject breakdown had been done systematically were we able to determine with certainty the adequacy of our collection. This procedure substitutes definite facts for a "feeling" of the inclusiveness of our resources. The number of workers in any one craft determined the degree of thoroughness which was deemed practicable.

For librarians offering vocational information the trade analysis makes a significant contribution. Two students in the field

of vocational education are of the opinion:

No better way of giving occupational information can be found, unless it is the actual trade work itself.... The analysis of a trade offers the best written authority on the description of a trade. Most of the analyses have information on the following points:

1. Nature of the work

2. Conditions of work

- 3. Line of promotion, levels of employment
- 4. Time required to learn trade 5. Composition of the trade 6. Precautions to take; hazards

7. Ability and thoroughness required

8. Qualifications and training in skill, both technical and manipulative⁶

As the program developed, the critical spotlight was focused on the librarian to examine his competence to serve craftsmen. We have discovered that in many instances we do not know enough of what the worker does to understand what he wants and can use. For the librarian the job analyses are important

^{5 &}quot;Materials and methods in adult education," in Wilson (ed.), op. cit., p. 255.

⁶ D. F. Jackey and B. W. Johnson, Analysis of the automechanics trade, with training and upgrading programs (Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1933), p. 79.

tools leading to an understanding of a craft and its terminology. This general understanding of the crafts must be gained; for the workers are not as critical of our service nor as expressive of their needs as we should like, and they are easily discouraged by obstacles. We try to remember that for most of them the use of books on the job is a new technique, and this fact makes it important for us to deliver convincingly at the first request. Where we have failed we are convinced that a fuller knowledge of the craft would have overcome some of the difficulty.

The value of films to the program cannot be overlooked by either the instructor or the librarian. The project method of teaching is particularly adaptable to their use. Films can be used to considerable advantage in a number of ways. The following are suggestive: (1) for general orientation of the TVA program; (2) to teach good safety practices common to several crafts; (3) to relate to the details shown in the craft analysis; (4) to show studies of the skills of certain crafts; (5) to teach health habits; and (6) to show the various stages in the construction of the job itself. Item No. 2 describes the use of a film which, not now in existence, is being made at Chickamauga Dam to fulfil a very definite educational function.

The librarian's responsibility for the use of films is the same as it is for printed materials—namely, to know the sources, to secure the films, and to circulate them. The evaluation of films for the crafts is better done by the job-training supervisor. Films are a new type of material for most libraries, and many problems are involved that need not be discussed here. Let it be said, however, that whatever the difficulties connected with their use, they are a potentially important teaching instrument and are quite properly a part of the library's collection.

Finally, in our opinion, to remove the barriers to effective relationships with both the craftsmen and the job-training supervisor, the librarian must learn the terminology and work of the crafts. Further, he will need to leave his desk and go to the workmen.

⁷ The U.S. Employment Service has issued within the last three years job descriptions of the construction industry, job foundries, hotels and restaurants, retail trade, and job machine shops. Others are proposed.

These methods of library service to workers were evolved from particular needs as observed at close range. To describe in detail their possible applications to the public library would go beyond the intended scope of this article, which has stressed primarily the use of printed and visual technical aids to one jobtraining program. This experience is by no means submitted as the answer to the problems attendant in supplying the workers' vocational needs, but it has been developed at length with the hope that, in spite of certain limitations, it may offer suggestions to public librarians who are interested in expanding and intensifying their services to this important group. More and more librarians are giving serious and merited consideration to this matter of extending and strengthening the vocational arm of the public library.

In recent years public librarians have had their attention directed by both librarians and outside observers to the opportunity of the public library in offering an increased vocational service to workers. Dr. Bostwick points out that "the American public library has not, until recently [1929] realized that a large possible demand exists for reading bearing directly upon the

daily occupations of its readers."8

O.H. Cheney's report on the book industry? has some interesting comments on the library as a market for technical books. A questionnaire was sent to two hundred libraries, one of the questions being, "Do you make a special effort to serve factory workers?" Cheney's conclusion was that "approximately 59 per cent of the libraries located in communities with a labor population made no special efforts to reach it or serve it." Further, the Cheney report concluded that "important groups in the actual and potential public of the libraries are not given the attention and service they need. These groups include, particularly, industrial workers and business men." 10

Alvin Johnson, a friendly and constructive critic of the public

⁸ A. E. Bostwick, *The American public library* (New York: D. Appleton, 1929), p. 133.

⁹ Economic survey of the book industry, 1930-31 (New York: National Association of Book Publishers, 1931).

¹⁰ Ibid., pp. 318, 320.

library, declares that the conditions of unemployment and of a rapidly changing technology have made vocational rehabilitation an important function of the public library." Yet, despite certain outstanding exceptions such as Detroit, Toledo, Pittsburgh, Milwaukee, and a few others, he does not believe that the library has successfully met this obligation and opportunity. R. R. Munn has recently urged that the public library provide organized labor with more printed materials relating to collective bargaining, wages and hours regulations, social security, workmen's compensation, and other information affecting the worker in his relationship with management.12 These vital facts of the worker's social and economic world should be widely available and are justly requested from the public library. In a recent study C. B. Joeckel indicates the implications for the library of the federally subsidized system of vocational education. He says:

Though complete statistics are not available, it is probably a safe generalization to say that library service in the system of vocational education is relatively more satisfactory than in the system of agricultural extension. The fact remains, however, that the vocational program requires a special type of book service which is by no means always adequately provided by local schools or public libraries. The need for vocational efficiency today is great, and libraries must be prepared to cooperate actively with Federal projects in this field. ¹³

The conception of the public library's opportunity to serve the worker's vocational needs is rapidly growing and expanding, but there are problems to be solved before the service will be adequate and widespread. Briefly, among the problems are those concerning technical and related materials, library personnel, understanding the worker, sufficient funds, and welldirected publicity. The solution of these problems calls for careful study and constant awareness of our professional and social responsibilities as librarians.

¹¹ The public library—a people's university (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1938), p. 62.

^{12 &}quot;Organized labor and the library," ALA bulletin, XXXIII (1939), 11-13.

¹³ Library service: prepared for the Advisory Committee on Education ("Staff study," No. 12 [Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1938]), p. 51.

INDEXING AND ABSTRACTING

HENRY BLACK

URING the last two or three years interest has increased considerably in the problems connected with indexing and abstracting services. The A.L.A. committee, created in January, 1938, "to formulate a plan for the study and solution of the most pressing problems," has been doing valuable fundamental work; and the Association of Research Libraries has had a committee working on certain aspects of the financial difficulties confronting these services. But there has not been nearly enough action and discussion.

Perhaps it is not too much to say that adequate indexing and abstracting service will be the outstanding problem of the bibliographic side of library work during the next decade. In these times of recurring economic and political crises periodical literature in all fields is steadily increasing, both in bulk and in importance. Around indexing and abstracting service—or the lack of it in some fields—is a complex array of considerations, such as coverage, editorial policy, finance, technical procedure, relation to other bibliographic services, etc. A variety of institutions, groups, and points of view are concerned. We are attempting here to define only some of the most important specific problems involved.

Two facts must underlie all discussions of indexing services. First, the existing services do not cover nearly enough periodicals, both with respect to total number of titles and specific titles in important fields. Second, it is neither economically nor technically feasible—and probably not desirable—to index all periodicals. Some selection of those to be indexed is inevitable.

¹A.L.A. Periodicals Section, Committee on Indexes and Abstracting Services, "Preliminary survey of indexes and abstracting services, with special emphasis on the fields of industrial arts and chemistry," *Library journal*, LXIII (1938), 265-71; Henry Black, "Existing composite indexes," *ibid.*, pp. 568-69.

It is the theory of that prolific indexing concern, the H. W. Wilson Company, that the selection of periodicals for indexing should be by the vote of librarians and also on the basis of whether or not the periodicals are represented in the *Union list* of serials. Such a criterion as the *Union list* may be satisfactory for a semicommercial organization, but from the standpoint of bibliographic efficiency it is open to at least two objections because (1) it does not include the holdings of some of the more specialized libraries; and (2) from its very nature the *Union list* must always be two or three years behind on current material.

TABLE 1

Periodicals ?	No. of Sets
Advance	. 12
Amalgamated journal	. 16
Carpenter	22
Federal employee	
Journal of electrical workers	16
Justice	. 17
Machinists monthly journal	25
Railroad trainman	
Railway clerk	15
Typographical journal	30
United mine workers journal	
Workers' education	24

Even if the *Union list* were a valid criterion, the basic question would still remain: Indexing is justified by how many sets of a periodical?

To illustrate this point we selected at random a dozen labor periodicals, none of which were covered by the Wilson services. The *Union list* recorded those shown in Table 1.

We are not proposing that these titles or any others represented by a particular number of sets should be indexed. We merely point out that the presence of a title in the *Union list of serials* is only one factor to be considered in selecting titles to be indexed. In view of the increased use of microfilm reproductions of journal articles as substitutes for interlibrary loans, one may suspect that the number of sets needed to justify indexing would be rather low.

The idea that the votes of librarians should be a principal factor in determining what periodicals are to be indexed is also questionable. Few library administrators or reference-department heads—those who actually do the deciding in the Wilson Company polls—are familiar enough with special fields to be competent to give ready opinions of the value of specialized periodicals. How many librarians would care to commit themselves offhand, for example, on the value of the Amalgamated journal or the Week? In the social and political fields, particularly, it is difficult to separate judgments about the reference value of periodicals from judgments about the validity of the points of view expressed in them. The age, training, and social background of many library administrators and reference-department heads would bias their judgments against liberal and radical periodicals. Very relevant here is the fact that few tradeunion and radical journals are covered by any of the existing indexes.

The selection of periodicals to be indexed or covered by abstracting services is of serious interest not merely to libraries but to all organizations concerned with education, research, industry, and government. It is our belief that selection can be handled satisfactorily only by a permanent body such as that proposed by the A.L.A. committee. However, to limit the group to librarians, as suggested by that committee, would be a mistake; for the problem is essentially a social one, and a representation should be required of all the various interests—library administrators and trustees, reference and research workers, scientific societies, special libraries, indexing and abstracting agencies, periodical publishers, and the main economic and political points of view.

Selection involves more than merely finding out how many libraries want a given title. Aside from the question of how much of a demand is needed to justify indexing, it may involve a re-examination of other periodicals in the same field; the question, in controversial fields, as to whether or not a particular point of view is adequately represented (failure to consider this may result in a form of censorship); and the question of whether

or not, in the light of current tendencies in thought and action, the material may be needed in the future. Indexing should not wait on demand any more than does book cataloging: it should precede it. This is particularly true in the social and political fields. During the past few years the work of numerous government and private bodies has been handicapped by the lack of indexes to trade-union and labor material.

Establishing objective criteria and selecting periodicals to be indexed would be only one function—perhaps eventually only an incidental function—of our proposed agency. The agency would help to keep alive and to guide constant critical examination of all bibliographic services devoted to periodical literature. It could carry on more extensive studies of coverage and the adequacy of present services. Probably it could define the fields covered by existing services much more closely than is now done. It could almost certainly find better ways of handling the indexing of new periodicals. Of course, such a permanent body would have weaknesses and dangers, but it seems reasonable to believe that if it were democratically organized it might improve on the existing situation in which, for example, Boston business is indexed and the New masses is not. A permanent agency would be expensive, but one may reasonably suspect that the total amount spent by American libraries on abstracting and indexing services is large enough to justify spending a little on improving the efficiency of the service.

The satisfactory organizing, in the bibliographic sense, of periodical literature depends on the solution of a series of problems. Some of these, very complex and technical, are mentioned in the report of the A.L.A. Committee on Indexes and Abstracting Services. A few others are listed in this article.

Specific information is urgently needed on the cost of indexing. How much, on the average, does it cost to index a group of periodicals? What is the cost of indexing a single magazine, a single number? What is the cost per title or per entry? Or, from another angle, what are the various components in the cost of indexing? What salaries do indexers receive, and what is their training and background? How is the cost of a given indexing

service divided between indexing, printing, and distribution? It is difficult to believe that the problems of cost analysis in this instance are of seriously greater complexity than they are in many industrial and commercial fields. At least three organizations—the H. W. Wilson Company, the Public Affairs Information Service, and the Engineering Index—do such a large amount of indexing that it should be feasible to obtain figures which could be useful guides in determining future policies.

A similar series of questions needs to be answered with regard to the abstracting field. A few months ago the author was faced with the task of drawing up, on short notice, very tentative plans and estimates for a proposed new abstracting service. Was it unreasonable to have expected that there might be available accounts of at least one or two existing abstract services, giving information about their organization, number of people employed in relation to output, salaries and training of abstractors, and other relevant factors? Such accounts may exist, but a survey of appropriate indexes and bibliographies for the last fifteen years did not reveal any. It is argued, in defense of this lack of information, that conditions and problems vary so widely that figures from any one project would not be of use elsewhere. But the rather trite point is that any information about costs is useful, particularly if the conditions and limitations of the project are clearly stated and if administrators of other projects may be trusted to interpret the information with imagination and discretion.

The question of the relative costs of indexing and of reproduction and distribution is of primary importance. Microfilm techniques are rapidly advancing to the point where they can be used for the routine reproduction of card files; photo-offset printing and other near-print processes are becoming increasingly significant. Situations are quite possible in which fifteen, twenty-five, or fifty libraries would be interested in a given service, and such needs might best be met by one or by a combination of the newer techniques of reproduction.

This last idea raises another fundamental problem of policy. Shall we aim at a very few large indexing services, each covering perhaps several hundred titles, or at a larger number of more specialized services, each covering a closely defined field? This, again, is related to the problem of duplicate coverage of certain titles and to the question of the distribution of indexing and abstracting work among the various organizations in the field.

Another problem that might well be investigated concerns the number, location, and character of "homemade" indexes-i.e., more or less complete indexes kept up by individual libraries. There are probably a fair number of these scattered throughout the country. Where are they? What subject fields and periodicals do they cover? To what extent do they duplicate each other's work or the coverage of the printed indexes? To what extent might the subject headings and procedures used be adapted to larger enterprises? Or, in some cases, could the indexes or copies be included bodily in larger enterprises? We would not suggest that the "homemade" index will or should be replaced; many specialized institutions will always need them. But certainly a study of a number of these would cast further light on the inadequacies of existing printed sources. And to what extent do libraries and research departments maintain their own abstracting services? To what extent do such private and restricted services indicate weaknesses in existing abstracting services?

A minor problem, but one which deserves critical investigation and thought, concerns the adequacy and agreement of subject headings used by various indexing services. There is fair agreement, on the whole, between the Wilson services and P.A.I.S., though the harried reference worker—not to mention the inexperienced student—may have cause for annoyance at the divergence in such cases as "Abyssinian-Italian conflict" vs. "Italo-Ethiopian War" or "Pensions, old age" as against "Old age pensions" or the practice of P.A.I.S. of subordinating names of specific political parties to the general heading "Political parties." Minor details like these are not theoretically important, but they do increase the cost of reference work. Or, with reference to the more specialized indexes, one wonders if anyone thoroughly familiar both with the subject matter and with the subject-heading work ever made a critical study of the system of

subject headings used in, say, Quarterly cumulative index medicus; and what the conclusions might be from such a study? The point is not that anything is seriously wrong, but that continuing enterprises as extensive and costly as are composite indexes need to be subjected to continued critical scrutiny. Research workers and industrial-production engineers are constantly reexamining their methods and techniques; should not the same

be done with bibliographic services?

Much of the recent discussion on indexing services has centered on the financial aspect, particularly around the merits of the "service charge." It would seem that the advocates of the "service basis" method of payment have the stronger case with reference to indexing services. That the use of indexes is roughly proportionate to the number of periodicals kept by a library and that charges should bear some relation to the amount of use appear to be reasonable assumptions. Whether they are reasonable or not, it is undoubtedly true that adoption of fixed subscription rates would force a choice between two alternatives: the fixed rates would have to be either low enough to come within the budgets of the smaller libraries and thus necessitate a subsidy—for we have no reason to assume that the larger libraries would double or triple their subscriptions—or relatively high and thus cut down circulation. It would be useful if someone would make a detailed comparison between the distribution of some of the Wilson services and that of one or two other services that charge fixed rates. Also illuminating would be a few specific studies of the cost of these services in small colleges and in large universities on a per student or per faculty-member basis.

But the service basis is definitely a secondary problem. The central fact is that, if libraries are to avoid retrogression, the amount of indexing and abstracting work will have to be considerably increased. That means that the expenditure must be increased, and whether the increase is to be met by particular groups of users, by some kind of a tax, by a subsidy in one form or another, or by reference librarians and research workers is a problem of policy. The only alternative is that libraries shall more or less deliberately restrict their services, refuse to attempt

to meet some current and developing needs. Any such idea, of course, will be vigorously resisted by all progressive librarians.

We can never satisfactorily discuss the problem of financing indexing and abstracting services until we know a great deal more about the existing situation. How much do American libraries spend for indexing services? For abstracting services? How is that distributed among individual services and among municipal, state or federal, college and university, and private or commercial libraries? What proportion is this of their total budgets? How much do publishers of these services receive in subscriptions from foreign countries? Conversely, how much is spent by American institutions for foreign services? What is the exact financial pattern of each of the various existing services? (It is to be regretted, in this connection, that a detailed study of the financial aspects of the various indexing services of the H. W. Wilson Company, made by a committee of the Association of Research Libraries, has not been published.) How much would a really adequate system of indexing and abstracting services cost? To what extent would it be possible, economic, or desirable to reorganize the whole field, regrouping both the services and the material they cover? These are not unanswerable questions; most of them do not involve any serious problem of methodology or technique, though they do involve questions of policy. For the first two or three, useful estimates could be obtained by an amount of investigation, correspondence, and tabulation not much greater than that expended on many theses.

The answers to such questions as these will be indispensable for any solution to our indexing problems; they will not, of course, bring the solution automatically.

It is perhaps slightly heretical to suggest subsidizing these services. It has become generally accepted that indexing enterprises, to be permanent, must pay their own way. But how many of the current ones do pay their own way? How many are completely independent, not merely of direct cash grants, but of such concealed subsidies as having part of their overhead carried by other parts of the sponsoring organization, benefitting by

free or low rent, or perhaps paying salaries to indexers, editors, and printers that are below the level for comparable work elsewhere? There is no specific information available, but one may perhaps be forgiven the "hunch" that, if all the factors are critically examined, not more than three or four of the most popular services would be found to be "paying their own way."

If libraries are to meet the growing demands on them, they must build up more adequate indexing and abstracting services. More money must be available. Since support by foundations or private grants is not likely to be available for well-established and routine enterprises, the most probable source is the federal government. In view of the increasing interest in federal support for more general library purposes, the wide range and importance of the various groups that would be aided, and the direct interest of the federal government itself in this problem through the multiplicity of libraries and research organizations it operates, a very strong case could be made.

This, of course, is a problem of policy. There may be other possible solutions; the whole is a matter for thorough and ex-

tended discussion.

Implicit in some of the recent discussion of the indexing problem has been the assumption that if this or that detail could be corrected, if subscription rates could be adjusted, everything would be fine and we could go on with other business. But the matter is far more complex than that; even aside from technical questions, the organizing of periodical literature is essentially a social function and can be handled satisfactorily only in a cooperative and democratic way. That will involve the setting-up of a permanent agency for research, discussion, and policy forming—an agency roughly analogous, perhaps, to the two or three closely integrated groups that now furnish leadership in the cataloging field. Pending the creation of such a permanent body, there is need for numerous individual investigations and special studies and for a greatly increased amount of discussion on fundamental problems and questions of policy.

SUBJECT COVERAGE IN UNIVERSITY LIBRARY CATALOGS

JENNETTE ELIZA HITCHCOCK

SUBJECT cataloging consists of three main processes: (1) the determination of the concept to be cataloged, (2) the selection of the terminology by which to express the concept, and (3) the transfer of the terminology to the physical medium by which it is to be represented. For a catalog of the dictionary card type these three processes are commonly associated with thought, subject-heading lists, and catalog cards. Although during the last sixty years in American library literature the emphasis has been on the second and third processes, the value of the work involved in them depends to a large extent upon the quality of the thought expended in the first

process.

Selective cataloging is in a position to exert profound influence on subject cataloging, for it enters the field of subject cataloging in the important first process. It comes at the step where the boundaries of the concept to be cataloged are set with relation to the physical book being cataloged. In standard subject cataloging for a dictionary catalog the book unit selected as suitable for the main author entry is retained as the unit for subject entry. In selective subject cataloging smaller units may be chosen if more intensive subject analysis is required, and larger units if less emphasis is needed. The use of larger units results in the omission of subject entries corresponding to the main author entries. By thus transcending the physical boundaries of individual books and adopting units which are fundamental to the analysis of the subject content of the book collection of the library as a whole, it is possible to institute more economical ways of cataloging various groups of books and also to edit the catalog into a more effective reference tool for the readers.

Selective cataloging, dependent like the advance guard of an army on the main body of troops to assimilate newly conquered territory, can contribute more to the advancement of cataloging if the main body of cataloging theory periodically incorporates its accomplishments. The Catalogers' Round Table of the American Library Association Conference at Saratoga Springs in 1924 demonstrated that pioneer work had been going on in several large libraries for some time. The subsequent review compiled by Mr. Van Hoesen¹ brought to the attention of a larger number of librarians the nature of selective methods and many reasons for and against their adoption. It is possible that at this time an examination of methods being used in a great number of libraries would disclose principles valid for general cataloging theory.

A survey study, conducted by the author in 1937 among university libraries with 50,000 or more volumes, has provided data for this one group of libraries on practices of subject-card omission.² The general scope of these data is given in the following section. A more detailed analysis of the data is presented in the succeeding four sections. In the first three the analysis is in terms of the causative factors of subject-card omission; in the fourth, in terms of the number of libraries omitting subjects.

GENERAL SCOPE OF THE DATA

The data, contributed by 89 of the 108 libraries selected for study, were supplied on check list forms specifying groups of material to be checked to show whether subject entries were assigned or omitted. The groups of material were formulated on the basis of a three-component system of faculty and students, public dictionary catalog, and library books. Factors such as the book-selection policy of the accessions division, the qualifications of the cataloging staff, the use of supplementary reference tools and Library of Congress cards, and open access to shelves were not treated.

¹ H. B. Van Hoesen (ed.), Selective cataloging (New York: H. W. Wilson, 1928).

² "The coverage of material under the subject entries of the dictionary catalog in American university libraries" (unpublished Master's thesis [University of Chicago, Graduate Library School, 1938]).

All kinds of library material—pamphlets, maps, films, etc., as well as books—were included, in departmental libraries and special collections as well as in the central book collection; but subject-card practice in the public dictionary catalog only and not in supplementary catalogs or the catalogs of special collections. "Subject" cards were defined to include entries with form headings as well as entries with subject headings but to exclude form cards³ under both form and subject headings.

USEFULNESS OF MATERIAL TO READERS

One objection sometimes raised to the use of the subject entries of a dictionary card catalog in a large general library is that the majority of readers have to thumb over many subject cards which they do not want and which only a few, if any, readers would ever require. One method of dealing with this problem is to remove the less necessary subject cards. The chief drawback to putting this solution into practice is the lack of knowledge concerning the requirements and catalog methodology of readers.

The same lack was felt in outlining a pattern of analysis for this part of the study. A pattern was eventually evolved by preparing a hypothetical scheme of university readers' requirements. The scheme was based on pertinent statements from printed sources and from interviews, incorporated with assumptions of the author, and was developed in terms of the inherent properties of books which make them useful to readers. This method of development made possible the enumeration of groups of books with properties useful to a majority of readers and of groups of books with properties useful to a minority.

In general it may be said that no reader will find a book useful to him unless its content is intelligible to him and significant for his purpose. To be intelligible to him it must be written (1) in a language with which he is familiar and (2) on a level of technicality which is comparable with the state of his knowl-

³ Cards without any bibliographical description specific to the item represented, e.g., a card stating "Pamphlets on this subject will be found on the shelf with call no.—."

edge on the subject and with his natural powers of comprehension. To be significant to him it must synchronize with his objective in (1) temporality, (2) authenticity, and (3) totality.

Language.—In a university community of faculty and students there is a wide range of language attainments. There are language specialists and representatives of foreign nationalities

TABLE 1
Omission of Subject Cards for Language
Material in Subject Classes

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Other languages in non-Roman al-	
phabets	24.6±3.8
Old Greek	9.1 ± 2.2
Russian	7.9±2.3
Modern Greek	4.7±1.8
Other languages in Roman alphabet.	3.9±1.5
Latin	3.6±1.4
French	0.0
German	0.0
Italian	0.0
Spanish	0.0
English	0.0

who know Chinese, Arabic, Hungarian, and other "less known" languages. Some readers have languages necessary for the thorough study of special subjects, such as Russian for communism or Greek for Plato. The majority, however, are familiar only with English and one or two of the frequently supplementary languages—French, German, Italian, and Spanish—and would find useful only the material written in these languages.

Table 14 contains data for the language of material in subject

⁴ Tables 1-14 and 16-24 have been constructed according to the following plan: Each table contains one group of material for which it was assumed there would be no omission of subject cards resulting from the factor under consideration. For example, in Table 1 the factor under consideration is language, and the assumed normal is English. In each table the assumed normal is printed in italics for its identification. A difference between the percentage frequency for the assumed normal and the percentage frequency for any other group of material in the table has been taken as evidence that the factor under consideration has an effect on subject-assignment practice, providing the difference is significant. The difference is considered significant if it is at least four times its probable error.

Each group of material on the check list could be checked in one of four ways:

classes. There are significant differences for Old Greek and for languages in non-Roman alphabets other than Greek and Russian, but not for the rest of the languages. Tables 2-5 for language of works written in a literary form, periodicals, publications of societies, and academic dissertations do not show any

TABLE 2
Omission of Subject Cards for Language
Works Written in a Literary Form

Group of Material														Percentage Frequency of Libraries							
Greek				*				,			*		*	,			*				69.1±3.4
Other																					67.1±3.6
Latin										*		*				×		*			67.1±3.4
German						,		è		*		*			*						65.9±3.5
Italian		,		,	,	,	*			,											65.9±3.5
Spanish						,				*			,						,		65.9±3.5
English			×				*														65.9±3.5
French								*		*		*			*						64.7±3.5

TABLE 3

Omission of Subject Cards for Language Periodicals

Group o	f Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Other		41.2±3.6
French		39.1±3.5
		39.1±3.5
		37.9±3.5

significant differences. It appears that in these cases, although subjects are omitted, language is not the predominating factor.

The groups of material are in the central collection of the library unless otherwise specified.

subjects are assigned; subjects are omitted; subject assignment varies; no such material is in the library. The percentage frequencies of libraries omitting subjects, as given in Tables 1–24, are the combined percentage frequencies of "subjects are omitted" and "subject assignment varies." They are calculated on the basis of the number of libraries to which each group of material was applicable, i.e., the total number of libraries checking the first three alternatives, and not on the basis of the total eightynine libraries returning the check lists. The number of libraries to which each group of material was applicable and the proportion of the percentage frequencies which represents "subject assignment varies" can be found in Table 25.

Twenty-seven of the libraries reported on special collections of foreign-language material. The percentage frequency omit-

ting subject cards was 14.8 ± 4.6.

Technicality.—The university community, when limited to faculty and students, consists of adults; furthermore, these adults may be assumed to have relatively high mental abilities. They should not require books written in a style designed for people with little intelligence or reading experience. The only

TABLE 4
Omission of Subject Cards for Language
Publications of Societies

		(ìi	01	uş	0 (of	1	M	21	te	ri	al							Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Other																				21.4±3.0
French.																				19.5±2.9
German		0	0									0		0	0					19.5±2.9
English.						*													*	19.5±2.9

TABLE 5
OMISSION OF SUBJECT CARDS FOR LANGUAGE
ACADEMIC DISSERTATIONS

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
German	. 27.7±3.6
Other	. 26.5±3.6
French	
American	. 11.6±2.3

need for books written for children or for adults with limited vocabularies would be for such books as specimens of pedagogical material. There should be no need for such material as a medium by which to study.

There are three sets of data dealing with juvenile material: special collections and, in the main collection, fiction and nonfiction. For special collections, on which forty-five libraries reported, the percentage frequency of libraries omitting subject cards is 35.6 ± 4.8 . For nonfiction there is likewise a significant difference: children's nonfiction, 19.7 ± 3.6 ; adult nonfiction (as represented by English material in subject classes), o.o.

There is not a significant difference for fiction: literature in English, 65.9 ± 3.5 ; children's literature, 63.5 ± 4.1 .

Material written for adults with limited vocabularies was reported on by forty-five libraries. The percentage frequency of libraries omitting subject cards is 4.4 ± 2.1 .

Levels of technicality for the faculty and student body, to cover the preponderance of books used as a medium by which to study, are not too readily defined. Some material requires

TABLE 6

Omission of Subject Cards for Technicality Works Written in a Literary Form

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Popular fiction	92.0±2.0
Literature in English	65.9±3.5
Difference	26.1±4.0

TABLE 7

Omission of Subject Cards for Technicality Periodicals

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Popular magazines	73.5±3.3
Periodicals in English	39.1±3.5
Difference	34.4±4.8

a depth of experience and a breadth of knowledge which makes it useful only to the specialist. Such material, detailed in content and couched in the accepted terminology of the particular subject field, may be termed "technical." Other material, broad in scope and unencumbered with details, emphasizing salient points and interrelationships and avoiding technical terms, may be called "nontechnical" or "popular." It is still difficult, however, to determine a majority interest. The number of underclassmen nonspecialists in a certain subject field may be increased at times by specialists from other subject fields who are temporarily interested in a field unfamiliar to them. Moreover, the proportion of specialists versus the proportion of nonspe-

cialists who use the catalog as a subject approach tool is, at

present, indeterminate.

The distinction of technical and nontechnical material on the basis of that supposedly used by specialists and nonspecialists was the one used in collecting the data, and the resultant tabulations are interesting. There are significant differences for popular fiction, periodicals, and publications of societies (Tables 6-8) and for material in browsing rooms but not for popular

TABLE 8

Omission of Subject Cards for Technicality Publications of Societies

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Clubs, orders of knighthood, undergraduate societies, etc	38.7±3.6
Learned societies	10.2±2.2
Difference	28.5±4.2

TABLE 9

Omission of Subject Cards for Technicality Subject Material

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Literature with a clearly defined his-	of Labraries
torical or other factual subject	7.8±1.9
Popular nonfiction	1.1±0.75
English material in subject classes	0.0

nonfiction (Table 9). For material in browsing rooms the percentage frequency of libraries omitting subjects is 36.1 ± 5.4 . There were fifty-two libraries which did not have browsing rooms.

Table 10 deals with academic dissertations, which may be taken as illustrative of technical material for the specialist. There are not significant differences for all groups of dissertations, so it is to be concluded that factors other than the inherent nature of dissertations are the cause of subject-card omission in the groups for which there are significant differences and that subject cards are not omitted for technical material as such.

Temporality.—Any subject has behind it a period of time, during which the thought on the subject has been developing. The usefulness of material from the standpoint of time depends on whether the reader is interested in past developments or in currently held ideas and currently propagated information of the subject.

Tables 11-13 show that there is not a significant number of libraries making a distinction in subject-entry assignment between early and recent material.

TABLE 10 OMISSION OF SUBJECT CARDS FOR ACADEMIC DISSERTATIONS

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Special collections	55.6±4.2
German	27.7±3.6
Reprints	26.6±3.4
Foreign (other than French and Ger-	
man)	26.5±3.6
French	20.8±3.2
American	11.6±2.3
Published independently other than	
in thesis edition	3.5±1.3
Nondissertation material (as represented by English material in subject	
classes)	0.0

Authenticity.--Another property of books which may determine their usefulness is authenticity. If a book is factual in content, are the facts from primary or secondary sources? Whether factual or imaginative or reasoning, is the author a person competent to handle the ideas? Is the text the one closest to the author, or has its content been altered through translation or editing?

Most libraries are not concerned with such an evaluation of material as a cataloging problem, according to the data, but must leave the responsibility to the book selectors and to the readers. That authenticity is not used as a basis for subjectcard omission was reported by 84.3 per cent of the libraries.

Ten of the thirteen libraries which consider authenticity in subject-card omission reported further: eight using source of facts

TABLE 11

OMISSION OF SUBJECT CARDS FOR TEMPORALITY MATERIAL IN SUBJECT CLASSES Group of Material Percent Frequen

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Early military and naval science	4.8 ± 1.6
Early technology	4.7±1.5
Early humanities	4.6±1.5
Early physics	4.6±1.5
Early chemistry	4.5±1.5
Early biology	4.5±1.5
Early medicine	3.7±1.4
Early agriculture	3.5±1.3
Early social sciences	3.4±1.3
Early mathematics	3.4±1.3
Early astronomy	3.4±1.3
Early geology	3.4±1.3
Early psychology	3.4±1.3
Recent material (as represented by	
English material in subject classes)	0.0

TABLE 12

Omission of Subject Cards for Temporality Periodicals

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Current periodicals	
Dead periodicals	37.2±3.5

TABLE 13

Omission of Subject Cards for Temporality Publications of Societies

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Dead societies	21.2±3.0
Active societies	19.5 + 2.9

as a basis; nine, competence of author; and nine, text original or altered.

Totality.—The amount of information required by a reader

varies according to what he is seeking. He may be looking merely for a few points on a subject, or he may be looking for full details. He can hardly expect to find everything in any one item of material; but, if he wants everything, material which has been written with comprehensiveness in view is more useful to him than material which has been written to skim the surface or to emphasize a few special phases.

In dealing with the totality of an item of material, there are two concepts to be considered, viz., inclusiveness and completeness. The degree of inclusiveness varies with the number of points considered; the degree of completeness, with the extent

of what is said about the points.

Two groups of material for which data were secured represent material which is neither complete nor inclusive. For these two groups a significant number of libraries omit subjects. One group is material with an indefinable subject, and the percentage frequency of libraries omitting subjects is 75.3 ± 3.3 . The other is material which has a definable subject but which does not treat it systematically or comprehensively, e.g., occasional addresses. The percentage frequency of libraries omitting subject cards for this group is 25.0 ± 3.2 .

An example of material which is complete but not inclusive is to be found in certain minor publications of societies, e.g., lists of members, announcements of meetings. The percentage frequency of libraries omitting subjects for minor publications

is 37.2 ± 3.5 .

Academic dissertations are likely to be both inclusive and complete. Table 10 shows that, although some libraries omit subjects for certain kinds of dissertations, a significant number do not omit subjects for dissertations published independently other than in the thesis editions. Hence, the inherent nature of academic dissertations is not the factor determining subject-card omission.

ORGANIZATION OF MATERIAL FOR CARE AND DISTRIBUTION

The content of books in terms of usefulness to readers is one part of the problem of subject-entry assignment. Routines for the physical care and distribution of books are another, whenever the number of books and readers is large enough to necessitate specialized routines, because atypical routines may open up channels of subject approach other than the central library catalog. In some cases it is then feasible to omit corresponding subject entries in the catalog.

Atypical methods of handling library material for its care and distribution result from the recognition of the interests of readers and from a functional necessity of dealing with the extrinsic properties of books. The desire of many readers to have cer-

TABLE 14
Omission of Subject Cards for Location of
Material: Departmental Libraries

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Off campus	76.9±4.6
On campus, not in main library build-	
ing	26.2±3.2
In main library building, not in cen-	
tral collection	13.3±2.8
Nondepartmental material (as repre-	
sented by English material in sub-	
ject classes)	0.0

tain books conveniently at hand and to be able to have them when they want them leads to the formation of special collections and to supervised circulation. Books as physical objects and as representatives of a world of books likewise lead to the formation of special collections and to supervised circulation and also to self-cataloging procedures.

Location of material.—To some extent, the interests of a university community are organized by schools and departments. For the working convenience of these departments and schools the library material primarily for their use may be segregated in special departmental collections. If there are special catalogs in the departmental libraries, there may be no great need for subject cards in the central catalog of the main library.

The data for material in departmental libraries are given in

Table 14. It can be seen from inspection of this table that all the differences from the assumed normal are significant.

Table 15, however, shows that autonomy in the cataloging of the departmental library may be a factor in subject-coverage practice and that the differences in Table 14 may not be entirely due to location.

Table 16 gives data for other types of decentralized material. The fact that the differences for foreign-language, reserve-book, and reference collections are not significant, together with the presence of a wide variation among the percentage frequencies for the other groups of material for which there are significant differences, shows that location in itself is not a predominating

TABLE 15

Omission of Subject Cards for Autonomy in Cataloging of Departmental Libraries

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Cataloged by departmental library	73.7±4.9
Cataloged by main library	16.9±2.9
Difference	56.8±5.7

factor of subject-card omission. The groups of material in this table are accordingly discussed again in other paragraphs in connection with other factors of subject-card omission.

Circulation of material.—Table 17 shows that for reference and reserve-book collections, which may be said to have their circulation controlled in order to facilitate use by a large number of readers, there is practically no omission of subject cards. For manuscripts, rare books, and erotica, etc., where controlled circulation acts to restrict use to fewer readers, a significant number of libraries omit subject cards.

Physical format.—The central collection of a university library is shelved in stacks designed for library material of ordinary book format. Library material not amenable to the general methods of storage—such as newspapers, maps, films, pamphlets, and certain minor publications of societies—can sometimes be handled to better advantage in separate portions of

TABLE 16

Omission of Subject Cards for Location of Material: Special Collections

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Pamphlets and vertical-file material	80.5±3.0
Government documents	70.2±4.1
Newspapers	64.4±3.8
Films	63.6±9.8
Academic dissertations	55.6±4.2
Manuscripts	42.9±4.5
Maps	40.9±3.9
Material in browsing rooms	36.1±5.4
Material with circulation restricted because of its	
content (e.g., erotica, Consumers' Research	
League publications, catalogs of private li-	
braries)	35.8±4.0
Juvenile material	35.6±4.8
Material supplementary to main holdings of li-	
brary (e.g., hunting and fishing, Lincolniana)	17.1±4.0
Foreign-language material	14.8±4.6
Rare books	14.8 ± 2.7
Reserve books	5.8 ± 1.7
Reference books	1.1±0.75
Nondecentralized material (as represented by	
English material in subject classes)	0.0
-	

TABLE 17

Omission of Subject Cards for Collections of Material with Specially Supervised Circulation

Percentage Frequency of Libraries
42.9±4.5
35.8±4.0
14.8±2.7
5.8±1.7
1.1±0.75
0.0

83

the stack or in special rooms. This means virtually the establishment of special collections and may mean the provision of subject approaches other than the central catalog.

TABLE 18

OMISSION OF SUBJECT CARDS FOR PHYSICAL FORMAT

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Pamphlets and vertical-file material.	80.5±3.0
Newspapers	64.4±3.8
Films	63.6±9.8
Maps	40.9±3.9
Minor publications of societies	37.2±3.5
Material of ordinary book format (as represented by English material in subject classes)	0.0

Table 18 shows significant differences in all cases. It is to be noted that the percentage frequency for films is based on the practices of eleven libraries only.

Individuality.—A book is characterized not only by its physical format and its content but also by its relationship to other

TABLE 19

OMISSION OF SUBJECT CARDS FOR INDIVIDUALITY OF THE PHYSICAL BOOK

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Manuscript collections	42.9±4.5
Rare-book collections	14.8±2.7
Material with average individuality (as	
represented by English material in	
subject classes)	0.0

books. This place which a book holds in the world of books may be termed its individuality.

When a book is individual physically, i.e., when it is the only copy in existence or one of very few copies, a library customarily takes extra precautions in supervising its circulation, since it could not be replaced if lost. If such precautions take the form

of the segregation of the books into special collections with accompanying special catalogs, it may be possible to omit entries in the central catalog. Data for manuscript and rare-book collections (Table 19) show that a significant number of libraries omit subject cards in these cases.

When a book exists in more than one edition, it is the text which is individual and not the content. If this fact is recognized, minor economies in classifying and cataloging can be

TABLE 20 Omission of Subject Cards for Individuality of Book Content: Small Form Classes

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Administrative reports of colleges,	
schools, and universities	73.6±3.2
Proceedings of legislative bodies	56.5±3.6
Annual (or biennial et al.) reports of	
institutions	52.3±3.6
Trade catalogs	45.0±3.8
Annual (or biennial et al.) reports of	
government departments	43.0±3.6
Material about exhibitions	12.9±2.5
Proceedings of congresses	8.0±2.0
Material with average individuality (as	
represented by English material in	
subject classes)	0.0

effected because the classification and subject heading do not have to be determined anew. It is also unnecessary to make subject cards for each edition. This type of subject-card omission has been recognized for a long time. However, the percentage frequency of libraries omitting subject cards for other editions is only 46.5 ± 3.6 .

Other books which lack individuality of content are those which fall in large classification groups—such as general works on physics or American history, annual reports of hospitals, novels of French authors. The classification and subject cataloging of such books is relatively easy because the classifiers

TABLE 21

Omission of Subject Cards for Individuality OF BOOK CONTENT: WORKS WRITTEN IN A LITERARY FORM

IN A LITERARI FORM	
Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Popular fiction	92.0±2.0
Literature in Greek	69.1±3.4
Other foreign literature	67.1±3.6
Literature in Latin	67.1±3.4
Literature in English	65.9±3.5
Literature in German	65.9±3.5
Literature in Italian	65.9±3.5
Literature in Spanish	65.9±3.5
Literature in French	64.7±3.5
Children's literature	63.5±4.1
Collected works	62.9±3.5
Collections	22.5±3.0
Literature with a clearly defined his-	
torical or other factual subject	7.8±1.9
Material with average individuality (as represented by English material in	
subject classes)	0.0

TABLE 22

OMISSION OF SUBJECT CARDS FOR INDIVIDUALITY OF BOOK CONTENT: PERIODICALS

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Popular magazines	73.5±3.3
Periodicals in foreign languages (other	
than French and German)	41.2±3.6
Current periodicals	40.8±3.5
Periodicals in English	39.1±3.5
Periodicals in French	39.1±3.5
Periodicals in German	37.9±3.5
Dead periodicals	37.2±3.5
Material with average individuality (as	
represented by English material in	
subject classes)	0.0

and catalogers have already seen many books of the same content and have already determined the notation and subject headings to be used. However, if subject or form headings are indiscriminately assigned to each individual book, the reader is confronted with a mass production of cards which requires patience and perseverance to peruse, and the number of catalog trays is increased rapidly.

TABLE 23

Omission of Subject Cards for Individuality of Book Content: Publications of Societies

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
Clubs, orders of knighthood, under-	
graduate societies, etc	38.7±3.6
Minor publications	37.2±3.5
Foreign societies (other than French	
and German)	21.4±3.0
Dead societies	21.2±3.0
Active societies	19.5±2.9
English societies	19.5±2.9
French societies	19.5±2.9
German societies	19.5±2.9
Learned societies	10.2 ± 2.2
Material with average individuality (as	
represented by English material in	
subject classes)	0.0

When the books in large subject or form classes are not used a great deal, it is feasible to reduce the number of cards in the catalog by omitting entries for individual books and inserting a form card specifying the general classification number of the group. It is still possible for the occasional reader to find the individual books by using shelf-list entries, if the books have been cataloged, or a direct approach at the shelves, if they have been set up uncataloged.

Data for several large form groups of material are given in Tables 20-24. In all cases a significant number of libraries omit subject cards. No adequate data were obtained for large subject groups.

NATURE OF THE DICTIONARY CATALOG

The total number of subject cards omitted in the catalog is affected somewhat by the nature of the dictionary catalog. Since author, title, subject, and form entries file in one alphabet in a dictionary catalog, whenever these various entries have the same wording they file next to each other. This quasi-duplication of entries can be avoided by eliminating one kind or another of the entries.

TABLE 24

OMISSION OF SUBJECT CARDS FOR INDIVIDUALITY OF BOOK CONTENT: ACADEMIC DISSERTATIONS

Group of Material	Percentage Frequency of Libraries
German	27.7±3.6
Reprints	26.6±3.4
Foreign (other than French and Ger-	
man)	26.5±3.6
French	20.8±3.2
American	11.6±2.3
Material with average individuality (as	
represented by English material in	
subject classes)	0.0

Data for autobiographies, in which author and subject are the same, show that the percentage frequency of libraries omitting subject cards is 57.5 ± 3.6 . For material in which title and subject are the same it is 27.6 ± 3.2 .

EXTENT OF SUBJECT-CARD OMISSION AMONG LIBRARIES

In the preceding three sections with their twenty-four tables, the data have been presented portion by portion according to the causative factor of subject-card omission under discussion. A summary view is given in Table 25. In this table all the ninety-five groups of material previously discussed are listed, arranged in the rank order of the percentage frequencies of libraries omitting subject cards.

An examination of this table discloses the extent of agreement in practice among the eighty-nine libraries. At the place

TABLE 25

Decile Ranking of Negative Subject Coverage Percentage Frequencies

DECILE RANK	GROUP OF MATERIAL	Number of Li- braries to Which Applica- ble	REPORT- ING SUBJECTS	of Libraries To Which	
				Subjects Omitted and Practice Varies	Practice Varies
1	Popular fiction	87	80	92.0	6.9
1	Pamphlets and vertical-file material	77	62	80.5	24.7
1			30	76.9	15.4
1	Material with an indefinable subject	77	58	75.3	13.0
1	Material in departmental libraries in which		28		18.4
	cataloging is done by departmental library	30	20	73.7	10.4
1	Administrative reports of colleges, schools, and universities	87	64	73.6	10.4
1	Popular magazines	83	61	73.5	14.4
I	Government-document collections	57	40	70.2	15.8
1	Literature in Greek	84	58	69.1	2.4
2	Literature in Latin	85	57	67.1	2.4
2	Literature in other foreign languages	76	51	67.1	5.3
2	Literature in English	85	56	65.9	1.2
2	Literature in German	85	56	65.9	2.4
2	Literature in Italian	85	56	65.9	2.4
2	Literature in Spanish	85	56	65.9	2.4
2	Literature in French	85	55	64.7	2.4
2	Newspapers	73	47	64.4	9.6
2	Films	11	7	63.6	9.1
2	Children's literature	63	40	63.5	3.2
3	Collected works of literature	89	56	62.9	9.0
3	Autobiographies	87	50	57.5	16.1
3	Proceedings of legislative bodies	85	48	56.5	9.4
3	Collections of academic dissertations	63	35	55.6	14.3
	Annual (or biennial et al.) reports of institutions	88	46	52.3	27.3
3	Other editions of material already entered un- der subject in the catalog	86	40	46.5	13.9
3	Trade catalogs	80	36	45.0	20.0
3	Annual (or biennial et al.) reports of govern-	86	37	43.0	16.3
,	ment departments	80	3/	43.0	10.3
3	Manuscript collections	56	24	42.9	16.1
	Periodicals in other foreign languages	85	35	41.2	20.0
	Maps	71	29	40.9	9.9
	Current periodicals	88	36	40.8	20.4
	Periodicals in English	87	34	39.1	18.4
	Periodicals in French	87	34	39.1	18.4

Decile		Number of Li-	REPORT-	OF LIBRARIES TO WHICH	
RANK	GROUP OF MATERIAL			Subjects Omitted and Practice Varies	Practice Varies
4	Publications of clubs, orders of knighthood, undergraduate societies, etc.	85	33	38.7	22.2
4	Periodicals in German	87	33	37.9	18.4
4	Dead periodicals	86	32	37.2	19.8
4	Minor publications of societies	86	32	37.2	18.6
4	Material in browsing rooms	36	13	36.1	2.8
5	Material with circulation restricted because of content (e.g., erotica, Consumers' Research League publications, catalogs of private libraries)		24	35.8	19.4
5	Collections of juvenile material	45	16	35.6	6.7
5	German academic dissertations	72	20	27.7	19.4
5	Material in which title and subject are the	87	24	27.6	13.8
5	Reprints of academic dissertations	79	21	26.6	17.7
5	Academic dissertations in other foreign lan-	68	18	26.5	20.6
5	guages Material in departmental libraries on campus, not in main library building	84	22	26.2	15.5
5	Material which has a definable subject but does not treat it in a systematic or compre- hensive way (e.g., occasional addresses)	84	21	25.0	10.7
5	Material in subject classes in other languages in non-Roman alphabets	57	14	24.6	12.3
6	Collections (i.e., individual volumes compiling works of several authors; not material de- centralized from the main collection of the library) of literature	89	20	22.5	12.4
6	Publications of other foreign societies	84	18	21.4	21.4
6	Publications of dead societies	85	18	21.2	20.0
6	French academic dissertations	72	15	20.8	13.9
6	Children's nonfiction	56	11	19.7	3.6
6	Publications of active societies	87	17	19.5	19.5
6	Publications of English societies	87	17	19.5	19.5
6	Publications of French societies	87	17	19.5	19.5
6	Publications of German societies	87	17	19.5	19.5
6	Material supplementary to main holdings of	41	7	17.1	7.3
J	library (e.g., hunting and fishing, Lincolnians)	4.	,	.,	7.3

TABLE 25-Continued

Decile Rane	GROUP OF MATERIAL	Number of Li- braries to Which Applica- ble	REPORT- ING SUBJECTS	PERCENTAGE FREQUENCIES OF LIBRARIES TO WHICH APPLICABLE	
				Subjects Omitted and Practice Varies	Practice Varies
7	Material in departmental libraries in which cataloging is done by main library staff	77	13	16.9	13.0
7	Authenticity as basis for omission	83	13	15.7	
7	Rare-book collections	81	12	14.8	7.4
7	Foreign-language collections when collections have been formed because of the language (e.g., Russian on all subjects) and not be- cause of the subject matter (e.g., Tolstoy)	27	4	14.8	3.7
7	Material in departmental libraries in main library building	68	9	13.3	7-4
7	Material about exhibitions	85	11	12.9	8.2
7	American academic dissertations	86	10	11.6	7.0
7	Publications of learned societies	88	9	10.2	9.1
7	Old Greek material in subject classes	77	7	9.1	0.0
8	Proceedings of congresses	87	7	8.0	6.9
8	Russian material in subject classes	63	5	7.9	1.6
8	Historical literature	89	7	7.8	2.2
8	Reserve-book collections	86	5	5.8	2.3
8	Early material in military and naval science	84	4	4.8	1.2
8	Modern Greek material in subject classes	64	3	4.7	0.0
8	Early material in technology	86	4	4.7	1.2
8	Early material in humanities	87	4	4.6	0.0
8	Early material in physics	87	4	4.6	0.0
9	Early material in chemistry	88	4	4.5	0.0
9	Early material in biology	88	4	4.5	0.0
9	Nonfiction material written for adults with limited vocabulary	45	2	4.4	2.2
9	Material in subject classes in other languages in Roman alphabet	77	3	3.9	0.0
9	Early material in medicine	81	3	3.7	0.0
9	Latin material in subject classes	85	3	3.6	1.2
9	Academic dissertations published independ- ently other than in thesis edition	85	3	3.5	3.5
9	Early material in agriculture	85	3	3.5	0.0

TABLE 25-Continued

DECILE RANK	GROUP OF MATERIAL	Number of Li- branies	Number of Libraries Reporting Subjects Omitted AND PRACTICE VARIES	OF LIBRARIES TO WHICH	
		APPLICA- BLE		Subjects Omitted and Practice Varies	
10	Early material in social sciences	87	3	3.4	0.0
10	Early material in mathematics	88	3	3.4	0.0
10	Early material in astronomy	87	3	3.4	0.0
10	Early material in geology	88	3	3.4	0.0
10		88	3	3.4	0.0
10	Reference-book collections	88	1	1.1	0.0
10	Popular nonfiction	87	1	1.1	0.0
10		85	0	0.0	0.0
10	French material in subject classes	85	0	0.0	0.0
10	German material in subject classes	85	0	0.0	0.0
10	Italian material in subject classes	84	0	0.0	0.0
10	Spanish material in subject classes	85	0	0.0	0.0

where the percentage frequencies for the omission of subject cards (second column from the right) have decreased to 50 per cent, the groups of material are in the third decile. That is, half of the libraries agree in omitting subjects for about a fourth of the groups of material. At the end of the fifth decile the number of libraries omitting subjects is 24.6 per cent. In other words, a fourth of the libraries agree in omitting cards for half of the groups. In the same way, it can be seen for the remaining half that the number of libraries decreases from 25 per cent to zero.

The general conclusion is that a minority of the eighty-nine libraries are omitting subject cards and that the omission of subjects is spread over ninety groups of material. It is not a case of there being ten or twenty best types of material for which subject-card omission is definitely feasible, with all the libraries following the same practice. On the contrary, a minority of libraries are experimenting in many directions.

CONCLUSION

The omission of entries under subject and form headings in the main dictionary catalogs of large university libraries has been investigated. There are four general types of material for which entries are omitted: material not useful to the majority of readers, material decentralized from the main collection, selfcataloging material, and material which is represented in the

catalog under subject by proxy.

For material not useful to the majority of readers, a significant number of libraries omit subjects for (1) books written in the less familiar languages, shown to be Old Greek and other languages using a non-Roman alphabet, with the exceptions of Russian and Modern Greek; (2) books written for people with intellectual interests other than those predominant in the university community, illustrated by children's nonfiction, popular fiction and magazines, publications of clubs, orders of knighthood, etc., special collections of juvenile material, and collections of books in browsing rooms; (3) material which does not carry with it a certain weight of authority; and (4) material which is complete but not inclusive, such as minor publications of societies, and material which is neither complete nor inclusive, such as that which does not treat a subject systematically and comprehensively, or material with a vague and indefinable subject.

It is to be noted that for the actual omission of cards no distinction between the majority of readers and the individual reader is made by a significant number of libraries for languages other than the least familiar, for differences in the level of technicality within the faculty and student body for their academic work, or for the publication date of material. In the last case publication date is frequently used as a means of dividing the subject heading in the catalog, even though it is not used as a basis for omitting subject entries. It is to be noted also that the pattern is further marred by the fact that subjects are not omitted by a significant number of libraries for material written for adults with limited vocabularies nor for children's literature

nor for popular nonfiction. In the two former cases this may be because they are covered by form headings for their pedagogical interest.

For material decentralized in departmental libraries and for material decentralized for special handling necessitated by physical format—viz., pamphlets and vertical-file material, newspapers, maps, films, and minor publications of societies—a significant number of libraries omit subjects. For material decentralized for the special supervision of circulation a significant number of libraries omit cards for manuscripts, rare books, and erotica and other censored material; but not for reserve and reference-book collections.

For self-cataloging material a significant number of libraries also omit subjects in all cases included in the study. These were administrative reports of colleges, legislative proceedings, annual reports of institutions, trade catalogs, annual reports of government departments, material about exhibitions, proceedings of congresses, academic dissertations, periodicals, and publications of societies.

A significant number of libraries likewise omit subjects for autobiographies, works written in a literary form, books with titles worded the same as their subject headings, and other editions of material already cataloged. For these groups of material there are, literally speaking, no subject cards in the catalog. They can be found there, however, by a subject approach in the form of an author or title entry which stands in the same place as the subject entry would or by a subject entry for another edition.

Underlying these four general groups which have just been outlined there appear to be two general principles in the process of formulation: the limitation of subject cataloging to types of material for which the library catalog is the best subject-approach tool, and the foundation of subject cataloging on the basis of subject units rather than on author units. The omission of cards for decentralized material and for material not commonly searched through the library catalog by the majority of readers limits the scope of the catalog. The omission of cards

for the individual items of any group places the emphasis on the uniting bond of the group rather than on the individual items. In subject cataloging this creates an emphasis on the basic subject interest of the group instead of on the author interest of the individual items.

This may mean that librarians are assuming an even greater subject cataloging burden than in the past. The production of entries on the basis of subject groups fundamental to the requirements of readers entails a greater responsibility than does the mere production of subject headings paralleling author entries.

Before the two principles can be accepted as valid for general cataloging theory, however, there will have to be a demonstration that the majority interest in the catalog can be determined in order to choose correctly the types of material which are, and are not, searched through the library catalog. There will have to be an evaluation and co-ordination of other subject tools. Furthermore, there will have to be some assurance that catalogers have the specialized subject knowledge and readerapproach attitude necessary to recognize basic subject units in cataloging. In the meantime, there can be held in mind as a goal toward which to strive the statement Miss Kelley made at the end of her study of subject coverage for specific subject headings and classification numbers: "Yet even the ideal subject-catalog would be limited in the number and kind of entries it could include. . . . The best subject-catalog is one which yields information up to a certain point, accurately and completely, so that the scholar and specialist can feel assured that, so far, the way has been cleared in the search for material; and that, from then on, they can continue to seek by means of more detailed methods of research."5

⁵ G. O. Kelley, The classification of books; an inquiry into its usefulness to the reader (New York: H. W. Wilson, 1937), p. 128.

NEGRO LIBRARY WORKERS

WALLACE VAN JACKSON

Library School's fourteenth year of service to Negro librarians and to librarianship. During these years many changes have been made in library service in the United States. City and county library facilities have been increased throughout the country, especially in the South. A study of library service would probably show that one of the greater advances has been in extending the service of books to Negroes and to residents of rural areas.

Although a Negro was graduated from a library school as long ago as 1900 and since the early years of the twentieth century a few Negroes have been employed in libraries in the United States, the race had few workers in the field until the second decade of this century. By 1937, Negroes had entered library work in such large numbers that the Columbia Civic Library Association, a group of Negro librarians in Washington, D.C., decided to publish a directory of Negro graduates of accredited library schools.¹

As a result of the increasing importance of the Negro librarian and the extension of library service to Negroes in public and educational libraries, the author felt that a study of the Negro library workers was justified. Accordingly, he sent questionnaires to 400 Negroes employed in library service in capacities other than janitorial. The material collected relates only to paid workers in school and public libraries and is not concerned with NYA or other student help.

The names of the persons to whom questionnaires were sent were taken from the Accredited secondary schools in the United

¹ Columbia Civic Library Association, Directory of Negro graduates of accredited library schools, 1900–1936 (Washington, D.C.: Columbia Civic Library Association, 1937).

States,² from Public secondary schools for Negroes in the southern states of the United States,³ from The educational directory,⁴ from Report of the Library Institute for Negro Librarians,⁵ from lists of graduates and former students furnished by all the library schools in the United States and Canada which had admitted Negroes, and from correspondence with all city systems of the country which were thought likely to employ Negroes.

The questionnaires were sent out during 1936 and 1937, and by February, 1938, answers had been received from 326 persons. Although this proportion of responses would seem sufficiently large to make the study authentic, the information in our hands is not as full as it could be. Since the tabulations from the questionnaires were completed several library schools have graduated Negroes. We have received only partial information concerning the present occupations of these graduates and students. Some shifts in positions have occurred, and some Negroes have been employed in city libraries where professional training outside the library is not necessary for appointment. We do not believe that these factors materially change the main features of this study.

Unlike the study made by the Columbia Civic Library Association, this survey included the training and work of all Negroes employed in library work above the position of janitor. In order to include all phases of library work the questionnaires made provision for these occupations: cataloger, classifier, order librarian, circulation librarian, reference librarian, administrator, periodical librarian, teachers' reserve librarian, curator or librarian of special collection, departmental clerk, general service assistant with Grades V–I, senior assistant, junior assistant, page, senior clerk, junior clerk, principal clerk, and part-time

² U.S. Office of Education (Bull. 17 [Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1934]).

³ John F. Slater Fund ("Occasional papers," No. 29 [Washington: Trustees of the John F. Slater Fund, 1935]).

⁴ U.S. Office of Education (Bull. 1 [Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1936]).

⁵ Morehouse-Spelman Summer School, June 14-July 25, 1930.

assistant with no special classification. The class "other" was included for those whose positions could not be classified.

The questionnaire provided for all essential information concerning the worker except that pertaining to salary and age. These items were deemed too personal and were considered unnecessary to make the study valuable. This was especially true with respect to age, because provision was made to ascertain the length of time the worker had been in the library field.

RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

According to the United States Census, 210 Negroes were employed in library work in 1930. Of these, 180 were women. As previously stated, by February, 1938, responses to our questionnaire had been received from 326 Negroes employed in libraries and doing work other than janitorial. Over half of this number (186) were in southern states, North Carolina leading with 29 and Arkansas reporting 2. The colleges and junior colleges of the United States employed 91 Negroes as librarians and assistants of various ranks. All these were in Negro institutions, and, in most cases, one librarian performed all the work. The survey showed that in five colleges for Negroes the libraries were headed by white men and women. Eighty Negroes served as librarians in the high schools of the country and 2 in elementary schools. The South claimed the largest number of high-school librarians.

It was estimated that 175 Negroes were employed by public libraries, although only 146 returned questionnaires. This statement is made because correspondence with the two largest cities in the country brought the information that a larger number of Negroes were employed than the returns showed. Of the number employed in public libraries over 60 per cent were in the North. The Library of Congress employed 44 Negroes in positions above that of janitor, 15 of whom were in the subordinate messenger service. Two librarians were with CCC

⁶U.S. Bureau of the Census, Negroes in the United States, 1920-32 (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1935), p. 320.

⁷ Library of Congress employees included.

camps and 3 were working in professional libraries of universities.

In Table 1 is presented information from the questionnaires concerning the location of Negro library workers by states and

TABLE 1

Number of Negro Library Workers by State and by Type of Library

State	College	Profes- sional School	Junior College	High School	Elemen- tary School	Public Library	Other	Total
Alabama	10		3	8		3		24
Arkansas			I	1				2
California						3		3
Delaware				1				1
District of Co-								
lumbia	11	2		1		44*		58
Florida	4			4		4		12
Georgia	10	I		4		3		18
Illinois				3	x.	28		31
Indiana						8	1	9
Kansas				1		1		2
Kentucky	2			4		8		14
Louisiana	1			2		1		4
Maryland	2				I			3
Mississippi	2			3				5
Missouri				4		3		7
New Jersey				1				í
New York				1		9		10
North Carolina.	8		1	15		3	2	29
Ohio	2					6		8
Oklahoma				3		1		4
Pennsylvania	1							1
South Carolina.	4		1	4		5		14
Tennessee	6			2		6		14
Гехав	12		1	7		2		22
Virginia	6		i	10	1	8	1	27
West Virginia	2			1			,,,,,,	3
Total	83	3	8	80	2	146	4	326

^{*} Includes Library of Congress.

by the types of libraries employing them. The numbers in the column headed "other" refer to 2 persons who were employed in CCC camps, I who was in a nurses' training school, and I who was librarian of a normal school. The study showed that

in several cities the public branch library was located in the Negro high school and that the library workers were responsible to the city system, to the board of education, or to both. Where the information received indicated that the library was a branch—e.g., stayed open when the school was closed and was

TABLE 2
Types of Positions Held by Negro Library Workers

RANE OF LIBRARIAN		RANK OF ASSISTANT			
Position	Number Employed	Position	Number Employee		
Administrator	125	General service	36		
Circulation	6	Circulation	12		
Reference	4	Reference	2		
Teachers' reserve	1	Periodical	1		
Acting librarian	1	Catalog.	5		
Teacher-librarian	18	Acquisitions	4		
Cataloger	5	Teachers' reserve	2		
Teacher-registrar-librarian	1	Senior branch	5		
Children's librarian	1	Junior branch	12		
Chief branch librarian	2	Extension service	1		
Part time	1	Special collection	2		
Head of Colored Department .	2	Registration	2		
Clerk-librarian	1	Part-time clerk	6		
Extension librarian	2	Substitute	1		
Special collection	1	Clerk	21		
Associate	1	Page	13		
Acquisitions	1	Children's department	2		
Periodical	3	Photostat operator	4		
Dean of women-librarian	1				
Total	177	Total	131		

under the supervision of the public library—it was put with public libraries. Otherwise, it was classed as a high-school library.

POSITIONS HELD

A variety of occupations in many branches of library work were reported by 308 Negroes. Administrative positions in college, school, and branch libraries were held by 125; and 36 said they were general service assistants. The South and Middle

West furnished employment for 18 teacher-librarians. In Table 2 is given the distribution by position of those who answered this part of the questionnaire, 177 of whom have the rank of librarian. In addition to the usual occupations of librarians and workers in libraries, 2 were employed as heads of the Colored Department, 1 as a teacher-registrar-librarian, 1 as a clerk-librarian of a branch, 1 as the dean of women and librarian in a college, 1 as head of the photostat division of the Library of Congress, and 1 as assistant chief of the division of Orientalia in

TABLE 3

Number of Negro Library Workers Employed Full
and Part Time, by Type of Library

Type of Library		Number of Part- Time Workers
College	74	10
Junior college	10	
High school	51	32
Public*	112	19
Professional school	1	2
Elementary school	2	2
Normal school		
Total	252	65

^{*} Includes Library of Congress.

the Library of Congress (he reads and writes Chinese, which he learned under the former chief, Dr. Arthur W. Hummel).

The 131 workers were employed as assistants in the usual library occupations. In some city systems Negroes were employed as general service assistants for all the grades from V to I, and some were departmental clerks.

From the reports on daily schedules of work it was shown that 252 Negroes were employed full time and 65 for part time. The returns showed that Chicago public libraries and high schools had 25 Negro full-time employees and 6 part-time. The state of North Carolina had 19 for full time and 10 for part time. Maryland, Mississippi, and Oklahoma employed more Negroes

for part time than for full time (Maryland, 3 part time, none full time; Mississippi, 3 part time, 2 full time; Oklahoma, 2 part time, 1 full time). In Table 3 is shown the number of Negro library workers employed full and part time, by type of library.

TRAINING OF LIBRARY WORKERS

Negroes employed in library work seem to have academic and professional training comparable to that of persons of other races in the profession in America. Of the number answering our questionnaire 170 reported academic degrees earned at 61 colleges and universities of the country; 134 had received the degrees of B.A., Ph.B., or B.Th.; and 3 held LL.B. degrees. In addition, 2 workers held certificates of graduation from normal schools, and 1 librarian had received the L.I. (Licentiate to instruct) certificate. Of the 61 colleges and universities from which degrees were taken, 34 were Negro institutions. Two librarians reported degrees but did not state the school granting them.

In Table 4 we have listed the colleges and universities from which 2 or more Negro library workers received their first degree. Schools reported to have conferred degrees on only I Negro library worker include: Alcorn A. & M., Bates College, Bennett College, Boston University, Colorado College, Florida A. & M., Indiana Central University, Indiana State Teachers College, Knoxville College, LeMoyne Teachers College, Lincoln University of Missouri, Monmouth College, New Orleans University, New York State College, Northwestern University, Oberlin College, Philander Smith College, Samuel Huston College, Simmons College, South Carolina A. & M., Southern University, Stowe Teachers College, Straight College, Tougaloo College, Tufts College, Winston-Salem Teachers College, and the state universities of California, Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, and Pennsylvania. The degrees of A.B. or B.S. were granted in every case except at the University of Michigan, which granted the A.M. degree.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF NEGRO LIBRARY WORKERS

Instead of confining this part of the study to an analysis of the 326 questionnaire responses, we have supplemented this

TABLE 4
Schools Conferring Academic Degrees upon Two or More Negro
Library Workers and Number of Degrees Granted

	Number of Degrees Granted										
Name of School	A.B.	B.S.	Ph.B.	B.Th.	LL.B.	A.M.	Total				
Howard University	18	4			3	1	26				
Fisk University	15	1					16				
Wiley College	8						8				
Virginia State College	2	5					7				
Virginia Union University	5			1			6				
Atlanta University	6						6				
Wilberforce University	3	3					6				
Spelman College	6						6				
West Virginia State Col-											
lege	4	3					5				
Morehouse College	5						5				
Morgan College	3	1					4				
Hampton Institute		5					5				
Columbia University		1				3	4				
Morris Brown College	3						3				
Talladega College	3						3				
Prairie View State College	3						3				
Lincoln University, Pa	3						3				
Bradley Polytechnic In-	3										
stitute	2						2				
Clark University, Ga.,	2						2				
University of Pittsburg.	2						2				
Livingston College	2						2				
Western Reserve Univer-	-						_				
sity	2						2				
Bishop College	2						2				
University of Chicago	1		1				2				
University of Cincinnati		2					2				
University of Kansas	2	-					2				
Ohio State University	1	1					2				
Jino State University	4	4									
Total	104	24	1	1	3	4	137				

information by reports from the library schools, library systems, and training classes which Negroes have attended. The

sum of this information is that 562 persons have spent at least four weeks in training for library work; 307 students have attended summer schools; 192 have received first-year degrees in library science; 29 have been members of training classes; 26 library workers have certificates of library science; 8 have diplomas from library schools; 7 have advanced degrees in library science; and 2 have been special students.

TABLE 5

Number of Degrees Granted to Negroes by
Library Schools

School.	Number of Degrees Granted							
SCHOOL	B.S.	A.M.L.S.	Total					
Hampton Institute	138		138					
Columbia University	23	2	25					
University of Illinois	15		15					
Western Reserve University	5		5					
Simmons College	4		4					
University of Michigan	1	4	5					
University of California		1	1					
New York State College for Teachers	1		1					
University of Minnesota	1		1					
Carnegie Institute of Technology	I		1					
Syracuse University	1		1					
Total	190	7	197					

A list of schools which have granted library-science degrees to Negroes is given in Table 5. In order to simplify the terminology of the table, all first-year degrees are entered under "B.S." and the advanced degrees under "A.M.L.S." Some library schools have given diplomas to students at the completion of the first year's work in library science, these diplomas to be superseded by a degree when the required amount of academic credits have been earned. In the case of one graduate of the group from the New York State Library School the entry is under "B.S." although a diploma was granted. This is

done because Columbia University has absorbed the New York State Library School. As in Table 4, the schools are listed in descending order of the total number of degrees granted.

LENGTH OF TENURE

The length of time in library service for the 237 persons who answered the question regarding tenure ranged from less than one year to forty-one years. There were 122 (51 per cent) who had worked five years or less, and 69 (more than 29 per cent) who had worked longer than five years but not more than ten years. When these figures are added to those of recent graduates from library schools, undoubtedly the number of Negroes who are being attracted to library work at present will be rather large. In Table 6 is indicated the length of service in years of these 237 Negro library workers.

TABLE 6
LENGTH OF SERVICE IN YEARS

Years										8.4	Number of Workers	Years			Number of Workers
Less than	1	1 .			0	0	0		e		3	16-20	0		. 16
1-5	0							٠	۰		119	21-25			. 6
6-10	0							۰	٠		69	26–30		٠	. 1
11-15						,	,	0	0	0		Over 30			

PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE

The reports showed that one-half of the 168 workers who reported upon their experience previous to entering their present positions came to the library from other fields: 65 were employed in education; 13 were in some phase of business; 4 came from social work; and 2 came from government service. The rest came to their present positions from other libraries, the largest number coming from college libraries.

The range of experience of some library workers in previous positions was large. Two librarians were formerly high-school principals; another was an elementary-school principal; I left the deanship of a college; 2 were journalists; I was clerk in a government department in Washington; I was stenographer for

a large insurance company in the Middle West. Several had worked their way up in city systems from low-grade clerk to branch librarian, and a few were departmental assistants in the main libraries of city systems.

SIZE OF LIBRARIES EMPLOYING NEGROES

Negro libraries and branches employing Negroes are relatively small. From 173 reports we found that only 1 library contained 100,000 volumes, 1 had from 60,000 to 75,000 volumes, and 3 had from 50,000 to 60,000 volumes. Most of the libraries employing Negroes had from 1,000 to 5,000 volumes; 30 had from 1,000 to 1,500 volumes; and 29 contained from 4,000 to 5,000 volumes. The approximate size (by number of volumes owned) of 174 libraries employing Negroes is shown in Table 7. The Library of Congress is listed as having 5,000,000 volumes.

TABLE 7

Approximate Size of Libraries
Employing Negroes

Number of Vol- umes Owned	Number of Libraries	Number of Vol- umes Owned	Number of Libraries
Less than 500	2	7,500-10,000	. 18
500-1,000	25	10,000-25,000	. 29
1,000-2,000	41	50,000-75,000	. 4
2,000-3,000	12	90,000-100,000	. 1
3,000-5,000	39	5,000,000	. I
5,000-7,500	2		

Since the questionnaires have been received, several libraries have added hundreds of books to their collections, and some college libraries have entered upon ambitious expansion programs, some of which extend over as many as five years. In several southern states the high schools are increasing their book collections steadily through the aid of Rosenwald and state assistance. Private schools and colleges are putting forth special efforts to increase the book collections of their libraries. The next few years promise large increases in book collections as well as expanded service and larger personnel in Negro libraries.

SUMMARY AND OUTLOOK

Although this study of Negro library workers is incomplete, sufficient information has been gathered to warrant some observations. The writer believes that the facts show that more Negroes are employed in library work in positions above that of janitor than is generally known. In northern cities having large Negro populations the public libraries are beginning to employ Negroes in a few branches and, in some cases, in main library buildings.

Checking the number of graduates from library schools against those employed in the profession has shown that most Negroes who are qualified have found positions. Approximately 98 per cent of these graduates have been employed in library work since leaving school. Whether we consider the graduates of library schools or training classes, the largest number of Negroes received their training in so-called Negro schools. Although Hampton Institute Library School was not opened until September, 1925, 184 students have completed courses there. By January, 1937, the school had 123 living graduates with degrees or diplomas, over 100 of whom were in positions in twenty-one states, chiefly in the South, in the District of Columbia, and in the Virgin Islands. About 70 per cent of these graduates were in college libraries, 15 per cent in high-school libraries, 12 per cent in public libraries, and a few in other positions.

Of the 562 Negroes who received training of any nature in library work 34 per cent studied at Hampton, 11 per cent at Columbia University, 9 per cent at Fisk University, 8 per cent at Atlanta University, 8 per cent at Prairie View State College, 6 per cent at Morehouse-Spelman Summer School, and 4.8 per cent at the University of Illinois. It is understood that the library training here considered includes degree, diploma, certificate courses, and special work and that it is not a picture of the professional librarian but of the library worker. Undergraduate library degrees were received by 197 Negroes from eleven library schools, Hampton leading with 138 or 70 per

^{8 &}quot;Accredited library school histories," Library journal, LXII (1937), 27.

cent. Columbia University graduated 23 students or 12 per cent, and Illinois 15 or 8 per cent.

A study of the questionnaires shows that Negroes who attended the northern schools have generally found work in the North. Library students from southern schools are working mainly in the South, although several are now in the Middle West. Many of the Negroes employed in library work who do not have a degree from a library school are attending school in summer. Those employed in the high schools of many southern cities expect their degrees soon.

TABLE 8

Number of Negro Library Workers Enrolled in Four
Schools during Summer of 1918

School	Number of First-Year Students	Number of Advanced Students	Total
Hampton Institute	29	14	43
Prairie View State College	29 38	9	47
Atlanta University	31	18	49
Fisk University	29	21	50
Total	127	62	189

The summer schools held yearly at Atlanta University, Hampton Institute, Prairie View State College, and Fisk University are preparing many persons now employed for more efficient work. The number of Negro library workers enrolled in these schools during the summer of 1938 is shown in Table 8.

Several state colleges are giving courses for teacher-librarians in order that those states may prepare librarians for the high schools of the state. All these summer schools may be considered the descendants of the original summer schools held at Hampton and Morehouse-Spelman—the latter registered 34 students for its only session in 1930.

A picture of the Negro library worker cannot be easily drawn, but one of the college librarian may be sketched. The average Negro college librarian might be described as a woman with a B.S. degree from an accredited library school; she administers, with part-time assistance and student help, a library of from 5,000 to 10,000 volumes. She has been in the library field from six to nine years, and the chances are even that she worked in

another occupation prior to entering the library field.

At the conclusion of this study of Negro library workers, the author finds himself with one thought—the Negro is becoming increasingly important in the library profession. Just as the Negro is receiving more library service, members of his group are being prepared to serve him. In 1935 twelve southern states had a Negro population of 8,633,437. Of these, 1,494,982 were within the service area of 77 libraries. This latter number was a large increase over the number served in 1926 but still leaves 7,138,455 or 83 per cent of the Negro population without access to public library service. Each year more Negroes are coming within the area of library service with trained Negroes serving them. In addition, several southern states are raising standards of high schools to require trained librarians or teacher-librarians for high schools accredited by the state.

As the Negro enters the library field in larger numbers, he will seek to participate in the professional activities of librarians. Already Negro colleges and universities are becoming members of the American Library Association, and the number of individual memberships is increasing. Attendance at annual meetings of the association has doubled in the past year. It is safe to say that in the future Negroes will join the association and will attend the conference in larger numbers. In the past few years workers of this group have become members of several state associations in the North and in the South, where they attend the regular meetings of at least two states. In other states the Negro library workers have separate organizations or have library divisions of state teachers' associations.

In all these cases the Negro library worker is forging ahead to take his place by the side of other workers in library service. In the future, complete participation in the professional affairs of the library field may be expected.

⁹ T. D. Barker, Libraries of the South; a report on developments, 1930-1935 (Chicago: American Library Association, 1936), p. 50.

THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

Henry Black was born at Atkinson, Illinois, in September, 1909. He attended Augustana College, Rock Island, Illinois; the University of Illinois; and the Montana State College. Mr. Black was librarian at Commonwealth College, Mena, Arkansas, from September, 1933, to July, 1939. At present he is acting as technical consultant for the Commonwealth College Library. Articles by him have appeared in the Library journal, Special libraries, and Christian century.

HELEN L. BUTLER is associate professor of librarianship at the University of Denver School of Librarianship. She attended DePaul University (A.B. in 1926, A.M. in 1933); was granted a certificate in 1920 and the B.S. degree in library science in 1934 by the Carnegie Institute of Technology; and received the Ph.D. degree from the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago in 1939.

Miss Butler was children's librarian at the Detroit Public Library, 1920–21; head of the circulation department, Michigan State Teachers College, Ypsilanti, 1921–22; high-school librarian at the Chicago Public Library, 1922–31; instructor in the training class at the Chicago Public Library, 1924–28; director of the Kalamazoo training class in the summer of 1928; instructor in the School of Library Service at Columbia University in the summer of 1932; and associate professor in the School of Library Science at the University of North Carolina in the summer of 1936. She has been with the University of Denver School of Librarianship since 1931.

JENNETTE ELIZA HITCHCOCK, cataloger in the Yale University Library, was born in Woodbury, Connecticut. She received the B.A. degree from Smith College in 1931. After working in the catalog department of the Yale University Library from 1931–35, she attended the School of Library Service at Columbia University. During 1936 she was in residence at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, from which she received a Master's degree in June, 1938. Since 1937, Miss Hitchcock has been cataloger and classifier of chemistry, physics, and technology at the Yale University Library.

WALLACE VAN JACKSON was born in Richmond, Virginia, in 1900. He received a diploma from Hampton Institute Library School in 1929, and a B.A. degree from Virginia Union University in 1934, after which Hampton Institute granted him the B.S. degree in library sci-

ence. He received the A.M.L.S. degree from the University of Michigan in 1935. Mr. Jackson has taught school in Virginia and in North Carolina, and he has also edited the *Voice*, a weekly newspaper published at Richmond, Virginia. Since 1927 he has served the Virginia Union University as librarian. He is now on leave of absence while studying in the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago. At the Negro Library Conference held at Fisk University in 1931, Mr. Jackson presented a paper on "Discipline in the college library." He edited a *Bibliography of the McClay Collection in the library of Virginia Union University*; and he is the author of articles which have been published in the *Virginia teachers' bulletin* and in the *Library journal*.

Walter H. Kaiser was reference assistant and branch librarian of the Technical Library, Tennessee Valley Authority, from 1934 to 1939. Born in Cape Girardeau, Missouri, on February 27, 1910, he received the degree of B.S. in education from the Southeast Missouri State Teachers College in 1930. After his graduation from the St. Louis Library School in 1932, he served on the staff of the St. Louis Public Library (1932–35). At present Mr. Kaiser is a fellow of the American Library Association at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. His report for the American Library Association will be concerned with the vocational services of the public library to the skilled worker. An article by Mr. Kaiser on "Lending collections of professional literature" appeared in the ALA bulletin for October, 1939.

THE COVER DESIGN

LRICH ZELL, the first printer of Cologne, was a native of Hanau; but he was educated at the University of Erfurt, where he matriculated on Easter, 1453. Later he went to Mainz and there learned the newly discovered art of printing. The sacking of Mainz in 1462, however, forced printers out of that city; and we next find Zell entering his name in the register of the University of Cologne on June 17, 1464, in order, no doubt, to obtain from the senate of the university the privilege of doing business. He soon began to print. His first dated book is of the year 1466, but he may have issued an undated edition of Cicero's De officiis earlier.

Zell began printing with little equipment. His printing stock was so small that, during his early years, he was often compelled to print only one page at a time. Unlike the early printers of Mainz who brought financial ruin upon themselves by issuing large and expensive volumes Zell confined himself for several years to small and medium-sized quartos, and even during his later career he continued to prefer this format. In all, from 1466 to 1494 or a little thereafter, he printed one hundred and seventy-seven known and surviving editions. These ranged from single-sheet broadsides to massive folios of almost a thousand leaves. His productions—a rather dull list, nearly all in Latin—consisted of theological treatises, grammars, rhetorics, editions of the classics, and other works probably used as textbooks at the university. Although his presswork was uniformly good, his composition and proofreading showed wide variation in quality.

Zell became a leader in his adopted city, and he was elected a churchwarden of the church of St. Mary in Lyskirchen. Evidently from pride in his office, he took as his printer's mark, in 1491, a figure of the Virgin and Child seated under the arms of Cologne. He ceased printing about 1502, and the mark passed to Laurentius Bornemann. Ulrich Zell, however, remained active as a churchwarden until the last of August, 1507. After that his name appeared no more in the records.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY

¹ A series of English and Scottish printers' marks was concluded in the last issue of the *Library quarterly*. A series of German printers' marks is begun with this number.

REVIEWS

American librarianship from a European angle: an attempt at an evaluation of policies and activities. By Wilhelm Munthe. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. xiii+191. \$2.00.

Dr. Keppel of the Carnegie Corporation, in March, 1936, invited Dr. Wilhelm Munthe, director of the University Library in Oslo, to study the library situation in the United States and Canada and to report his impressions. The Carnegie Corporation had for many years sponsored library surveys throughout the world, commented Dr. Keppel, and these surveys—frank and sometimes almost rudely critical of existing conditions—were generally made by Americans. Services of this sort would come with better grace, he thought, from those who were known to be willing and ready to take the same medicine which they had been prescribing so freely for others. American librarianship from a European angle is the somewhat delayed result.

Dr. Munthe's visit was made in the fall of 1936. From September to November he visited thirty-six states and four Canadian provinces. His interpretation of his assignment was broad, and the nineteen chapters in American librarianship from a European angle include discussions of libraries of various types, of library buildings, of training for librarianship, and of such related topics as American bookstores and American college educational methods.

Naturally, Dr. Munthe is not equally at home in all fields. His conclusions on some phases of library problems are decidedly debatable, but it must be admitted that he shows remarkable insight into the library situation as a whole. With advantage to himself and to American librarians he brings a fresh viewpoint. He is absolutely honest, and he expresses himself clearly and precisely—thanks to his own ability and to that of the translator, Dr. John J. Lund of Duke University. Nor can this study be called superficial, although it is impossible, of course, to cover in detail in a book of less than two hundred pages such a wide field.

One of the author's assets in a task of this kind was his sense of humor. He took to heart the warning of Owen Wister's Virginian—"When you call me that, smile!" One might wish that Dr. Munthe had been more specific in his criticisms. But it is evident that his object was not to deal with personalities but to set American librarians to thinking about the fundamental problems which they face. In this, the reviewer thinks Dr. Munthe has been eminently successful.

Those interested in world-wide library history will obtain a good background and, perhaps, a new perspective in the chapter entitled "America and Europe." The discussion of the present situation of the American book trade and its possible connection with libraries brings pause to those who have been critical of the bookstores. The criticism of the public library, of which we are so proud, is constructive as well as destructive. Some will disagree with the statement, "We fail to find among patrons of the American municipal library that considerable group of cultured people that in European countries, particularly the smaller ones, comes to the library for the sake of reading foreign literature in the original." The chapter entitled "A pessimist looks at the public library" may be argued but not denied in toto. Some will admit that the co-operation between our libraries and our schools is not what it should be, but at the same time they will think that Dr. Munthe does not appreciate the progress that has been made when he says that little has been accomplished in this direction; and more of us will hesitate to agree that an important deterrent to progress lies in the fact that "teachers do not fully accept the library assistant as an equal."

The picture of the average college library is particularly cutting when it is stated that a small percentage of the students with whom the reading-rooms are teeming seem really to be absorbed in their work; that most of them seem to take their reading as an assigned task; that their attention follows everyone coming in or going out; and that the library has become the center of the college in a sense that was not intended—it has become the one great meeting place on the campus. When the author questions whether undergraduates are really mature enough for the system of extensive, collateral reading, many of us will disagree with him. The same holds true in connection with his statement that "the whole American college library system must tend to encourage and develop gregarious reading habits." Dr. Munthe then goes on to say, "May it not be that both stacks and browsing rooms, instead of inviting the unliterary students to read, have just the opposite effect? Perhaps his reaction to all this array of books is 'No, if there are that many good books to read, there is no sense in my even starting."

With regard to university libraries, Dr. Munthe seems to get at the heart of the problems in connection with centralization, book selection, stack access, etc. It may trouble us to read, "As we pass the rows of shelves in an American university library, we realize at once how it differs from its European counterpart. The former seems primarily adapted to serve an institution, while the latter looks more like a general research library." When he goes on to say that the basis on which German and Scandinavian libraries are built is much broader, we can only hope that he is wrong. Occasionally he treads on more uncertain ground—e.g., when he speaks of the carrel system as being impracticable and expensive, since most carrels are vacant 80 per cent of the time the library is open. He fails to realize that a space $5' \times 5' \times 7'$, which is in use only 20 per cent of the time, is cheaper with regard to cubic space than a seat in constant use in one of our monumental forty-feet-high reading-rooms.

Dr. Munthe's paragraph on censorship, in which he says that the feeling in Europe is not uncommon that freedom of investigation and teaching rests on uncertain ground at many American universities, and his statement that "all libraries are probably conservative in principle, and if we look under controversial topics in the catalog it will be pretty clear which side is favored," gives

a different point of view than that held by many of us.

The three chapters on education for librarianship are invaluable reading for anyone interested in library personnel and training. They deal with an exceedingly controversial subject, and those who disagree with Dr. Munthe must admit that there are defenders of his point of view in this country as well as abroad. In this connection it is unfortunate that on the top of page 133 he speaks of the three different "types" of accredited library schools as different "classes," but it is a natural mistake for anyone not understanding the reasons for the terms adopted by the Board of Education for Librarianship. The chapter on "Librarianship, a feminine vocation," may cause considerable heartburning, but again evinces the author's very keen ability to analyze a situation.

In this reviewer's opinion no book on American libraries that has appeared in recent years is more stimulating or more worth reading. It should shake many of us out of our natural complacency; it should irritate us just enough to set our thinking processes to work; in short, it is worth-while reading for librarians of all sorts and ranks.

K. D. METCALF

Harvard University

A life with men and books. By ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. 358. \$3.25.

Other librarians may have written autobiographies, but none comes to mind at the moment. Let us hope that Dr. Bostwick has started a precedent, for there are many outstanding librarians whose impressions of their own times as they saw them would make interesting reading. There are, for example, Panizzi or Richard Garnett to tell about nineteenth-century London and the British Museum; Van Praet and Renan and Delisle could do the same for the Bibliothèque Nationale, telling how it developed from the Bibliothèque Royale into the institution of today. It would be fine to know what Spofford had to say about life in Washington while he was at the Library of Congress; or Billings while he was creating the Surgeon-General's Library; or the comments of Justin Winsor, William I. Fletcher, Charles Ammi Cutter, and John Cotton Dana on the people they had known and the things they had done. Dewey we know now, and R. R. Bowker we soon shall know—but only objectively through the eyes of their biographers, as self-revelation is limited to their letters passed on to us by their appraisers.

With Dr. Bostwick we have a man who not only stands at the top of the library profession but who has done well also as a teacher, mathematician, physicist, editor, compiler, and author. There are not many persons with his versatility. A clear thinker, gifted, experienced, and well trained in expressing his opinions, he is happy in his contacts with both men and books. His story is as well named as it is well written.

Dr. Bostwick came into the library world at a fortunate time. The wide exploratory surveys had been made by the preceding generation. His task and the task of his fellow-workers was to lay the foundations, or at least the lower courses, of the superstructure; to find plans and materials plastic enough for tests and experiments; and to find workers young enough and enthusiastic enough to jump at the chance to do new things.

The general principles of library practice were recognized then as now, though more as a matter of common sense, consideration for others, and effec-

tive direction of effort rather than as textbook pronouncements.

Anyone will agree after studying the library career here set forth—in New York, in Brooklyn, and in St. Louis, the trips for observation, for comment, and for advice throughout the country from north to south, from coast to coast, and from China to Italy—that Dr. Bostwick undoubtedly has "planned more branch library buildings than any other librarian" and that he has many other library "records" to his credit. His *The American public library* is unquestionably the best general book on the subject. Dr. Bostwick must have great credit also for his work on that fundamental and monumental survey of library practice and conditions that appeared in four volumes in 1926–27.

His is a striking record, and all who know him will rejoice that he has here set it forth as he recalls it. The book is an amazing and instructive record of things remembered. The Foreword gives fair warning that the author is writing entirely from memory, with no formal verification of dates and documents. This reviewer is glad to say, however, that, when he doubted one or two dates and checked them, he found that the author was correct.

The reviewer disagrees with some interpretations and explanations of the attitudes and interests of Dr. Billings as to work in New York. But that is a

matter of opinion, of course.

Would that the manufacture of the book were equal to its writing—for example, the misprints that escaped the proofreader on pages 248 and 265, the constant variation of color in press work, the illustrations on stock of one color and text on another, the sewing and casing work.

H. M. LYDENBERG

New York Public Library

A history of cataloguing and cataloguing methods, 1100-1850: with an introductory survey of ancient times. A thesis accepted for the Honours Diploma of the Library Association. By Dorothy May Norris; with a Foreword by H. M. Cashmore. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. ix+246. 10s. 6d. net.

The title of this work is somewhat misleading. The book is not, as one would infer, a general history of the subject. It deals almost exclusively with English catalogs and cataloging methods.

After an introduction on library catalogs in ancient times, the catalogs of the Middle Ages and of the period prior to 1800 are discussed in chapters i-v and vii-ix. Chapter vi is devoted to the Bodleian catalogs, 1602 to date, and contains much information that is both enlightening and entertaining. Also enlightening and entertaining is chapter x on the British Museum Catalogues, where we find once more a vivid account of "The battle of the rules."

The Bibliography (pp. 238-40) contains English authorities almost exclusively. There are only two Americans cited-G. W. Cole, "An early French 'General catalog'" (Library journal, XXV [1900], 329-31), and H. O. Severance, "Three of the earliest book catalogs" (Public libraries, X [1905], 116-17). No mention is made of the three books by Richardson, or the contributions of Jewett, Cutter, Dewey, Billings, etc. Even more striking is the absence of Continental European authorities. The Dane Rostgaard and Florian Trefler, here called Florianus Treflerus, receive each a brief notice. We look in vain for some mention of Gesner, Gottlieb, Schrettinger, Hottinger, Ebert, Birt, Molbech, Löffler, Schleiermacher, Petzholdt, Clement, Barbier, Brunet, Delisle, Graesel, Ehrle, Milkay, Schwenke, Ladewig, Leyh, etc. No reference is made to the great handbooks of Milkau Dahl, Graesel, Gardthausen, Grassauer, Maire, or the great German work Mittelalterliche Bibliothekskataloge Deutschlands, or the many valuable contributions found in the Serapeum, the Anzeiger and Neue Anzeiger für Bibliothekskunde, Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen, Revue des bibliothèques, and other professional journals. Even among British writers one misses an occasional name, e.g., that of Wheatley.

As it is, the work will be of value chiefly to those who desire information concerning early English catalogs, particularly the catalogs of the monastic and school libraries. It presents in a clear and convenient form descriptions, examples, and illustrations with historical data from a great many early catalogs which the student could consult only by referring to many sources and

at much expenditure of time and labor.

Some day we shall probably have a comprehensive history of catalogs and cataloging methods. It will be a difficult and time-consuming task for which American and British librarians do not seem to have the time or patience. Whether our library associates of Continental Europe, who have hitherto shown a more marked aptitude for scholarly and painstaking investigations along historical lines, will assume the burden may depend not a little on the political and economic developments of the next quarter-century.

Sister Bay, Wisconsin J. C. M. HANSON

James Duff Brown, Subject classification for the arrangement of libraries and the organization of information: with tables, indexes, etc., for the subdivision of subjects. By James D. Stewart. 3d ed. rev. and enl. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. 565. 30s. net.

A little over thirty years ago the Scotch librarian, James Duff Brown, announced the first edition of his adjustable subject classification. The reviewer

recalls vividly the keen interest with which American librarians of that day waited the appearance of the new classification. Dewey's Decimal Classification had been accepted in most public libraries in the United States and also by many in Great Britain, but many of the larger university and reference libraries were frankly opposed to it, chiefly because of the cramped notation which they feared might some day force an expensive reclassification, or, at any rate, a surrender of the principle of close classification on the shelves.

In 1889–90, Dr. Poole in the Newberry Library had tried the curious expedient of using the Dewey Classification but changing the notation by taking 10,000 numbers, apportioning the first few hundred to general works, the next group to religion, etc., each number to stand, not for a subdivision or section, but for a book or title. The result had, of course, been a general breakdown all along the line. Charles Evans, the first secretary of the A.L.A., was brought to Chicago from somewhere in Texas in the hope that he might be able to unravel—without resorting to reclassification—the snarl that had resulted. His remedy was to expand the notation from 10,000 to 190,000, each number to stand, as heretofore, for a book, not a section. The only result was a deferring of the breakdown for another year or two.

In the meantime, Cutter had gone to the other extreme in the notation for his Expansive Classification scheme by adopting letters instead of numbers for both classes and subdivisions—a plan which permitted indefinite expansion with the fewest possible characters. The irregular sequence of letters and the introduction of preliminary numbers, while admittedly an improvement on Dewey, had, however, failed to satisfy the university and reference librarians. As a result, Harvard, in 1894, and the Library of Congress, in 1897, tried a compromise between Dewey and Cutter—the first by adopting a mnemonic class designation, e.g., "mus" for music, "chem" for chemistry, etc.; the latter by using a single or double letter for the class. Each used Arabic numerals in regular sequence to indicate subdivisions. At the University of California, Rowell had introduced still another variation.

After these experiments, Brown's proposal to use letters for classes and decimals for subdivisions seemed to furnish a simple and logical solution. That his classification failed of adoption in American libraries was probably because it was somewhat limited in its development and had not been applied to a large and representative collection of books, and also because of the great expense involved in introducing a new scheme of classification.

The various plans here enumerated had, of course, caused much discussion in the library press and at conferences. A committee of the Royal Society that planned the great international catalog of science from which so much was expected had also decided on a notation similar to that devised by Brown.

It must be remembered that all this transpired over thirty years ago when questions of notation, classification, and the like were still considered sufficiently important to occupy the best minds of the profession. Today, when such matters are usually regarded as techniques—a somewhat indefinite term used to cover activities which are of concern chiefly to beginners in library

schools—the appearance of a third edition of Brown may not arouse the interest among librarians that the first edition did. At the same time, the few who are concerned with classification will welcome this addition to their reference collections.

In its enlarged and improved form the Subject classification is a publication which no library of any consequence can afford to be without. Mr. Stewart, the editor, has had some able assistance in the enlargement and changes necessitated by recent political, economic, technical, and scientific developments. Wherever possible these alterations consist in the introduction of new numbers, thus obviating extensive renumbering of books and catalogs. In history, for instance, O518 is a new number under Abyssinia for "Italian rule 1936-."

For "Sino-Japanese war 1937-" the new number is P429.222.

The changes made under \$460-477 for Czechoslovakia remind the reviewer of a visit he made in 1907 to the then Imperial Library of Berlin. One of the older librarians, Dr. Preuss, was kind enough to explain the plan of classification and, in turning to history, we came upon Alsace-Lorraine still standing as a subdivision of France. Dr. Preuss explained this by saying that pressure of other work had prevented them from changing it. In view of the present political situation, classifiers may do well to follow the example of the Berlin library and be slow to introduce radical changes under "history" and "topography."

The prominence given to the vernacular form of personal and place names throughout the classes "history" and "topography" is a commendable feature and one that other classifications may well adopt. The entire work bears evidence of scholarly and painstaking effort on the part of the editor and his assistants. In conclusion, the reviewer ventures the statement that, had Brown issued his classification some ten years earlier than he did, both the Library of Congress and the Harvard library might today be operating under the Brown notation or some slight modification of it.

J. C. M. HANSON

Sister Bay, Wisconsin

College and university library buildings. By Edna Ruth Hanley. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. 152. \$4.50.

Dr. Bishop, in a Foreword to this book, writes: "There are not many books on American library buildings, and too few of these are liberally furnished with plans and views of the buildings themselves. This book by Miss Hanley, then, fills a decided need, and I am glad to bespeak for it a welcome, particularly in college and university circles. In view of the number of such libraries now planning to erect new buildings as a result of growth in student attendance and in the stock of books, this book is most timely."

This is an able and succinct statement of the points which make Miss Hanley's book a fine addition to our professional literature. Representative types of buildings are shown together with their plans. The author's aim is to present both good and bad features—"those to be emulated and those to be avoided." But the plans and views are far from being the only valuable parts of the book. Indeed, the introductory article entitled "Some essentials in college library planning" is, in the reviewer's opinion, one of the most significant contributions which the author has made; especially if it is read, as suggested, in conjunction with Dr. Gerould's *The college library building*. Page references to Dr. Gerould's book are given for each citation.

At the beginning of her article Miss Hanley enumerates the six specific functions which the library building should be able to care for:

- The acquiring, cataloging, classifying, and shelving of a book collection complementing the instructional program of the college
- 2. The efficient and rapid production of information and material when demanded
- The provision of quiet, comfortable, and attractive rooms for reading and studying
 The provision of individual studies for the use of students doing special work and for faculty members doing research
- Assistance in developing the reading habit, thereby acquiring knowledge through the independent use of books
- The acquainting of the users with the contents of the library, thereby arousing in them a desire to read, and stimulating them to read for culture and for pleasure

At the conclusion of her article the author states that the building "should be capable of expansion in all of the major services, and should be properly heated, ventilated, and lighted by both natural and artificial means. Finally, the plan should be sufficiently elastic so that it can be expanded without injuring its architectural beauty or diminishing its economical administration." That last point should be printed in large, extra-black letters for the benefit of college administrators who all too frequently fail to consider the possibility of growth.

A list of "Selected references" follows this initial statement of essentials. It is a well-selected list but would have been more useful if annotated. Although many of the titles are self-explanatory, a line of evaluation or description would undoubtedly have been helpful.

The main body of the book is devoted to the views, plans, and descriptions of the buildings. This section is divided into five parts: (1) buildings costing over \$600,000; (2) buildings costing between \$300,000 and \$600,000; (3) buildings costing less than \$300,000; (4) teacher-training institutions; and (5) junior colleges. Naturally, this is the most important part of the book and is, on the whole, exceedingly well done. The views are attractive, giving a good idea of the fitness of the building to its surroundings; the floor plans, and in some instances cross-sections or longitudinal views, are clear and easily understood; while the descriptions are brief but pointed, with criticisms and suggestions that will be helpful to other librarians.

A glance at the contents page, however, indicates that the book has little to offer the librarians of teacher-training institutions or junior colleges except as such librarians may adapt the material to their needs. Only three junior college buildings have been included and two teachers colleges as compared with thirty-seven colleges and universities. And yet, we can scarcely criticize the author because the majority of teachers colleges and junior colleges do not

have separate buildings for their libraries.

A statistical chart is included which shows the comparative cost and size data of the buildings presented. This can be of incalculable value to the librarian who must persuade his president to build on a large enough scale to anticipate future needs—or, perhaps to the one whose president needs to be restrained from spending so much on the building that there will not be sufficient money for staff, books, and equipment. Data presented are: name of institution, approximate cost, year completed, name of architect, type of plan, student enrolment, reference and main reading-room, reserved-book room, periodical room, carrels, stack capacity, and cubical contents.

Finally, there is a bibliography of college and university library buildings, 1917–38. This, we are happy to report, is annotated and includes illustrated and descriptive articles "dealing with the physical aspects of the buildings, omitting those pertaining to administration, book collection, dedication exercises, etc." There is no index but it is probably not essential, since the con-

tents page serves adequately in locating the individual buildings.

Miss Hanley has succeeded admirably in what she set out to do, and we are sure that every librarian who expects to have a new building—or even dreams of such a happy event—will join Dr. Bishop in according this book a hearty welcome.

MARY REBECCA LINGENFELTER

Lock Haven State Teachers College Lock Haven, Pennsylvania

Floors and floor coverings. By CORNELIA D. PLAISTER. ("Library equipment studies," No. 2.) Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. 75. \$0.75.

This is an unusual study in an unusual form. It is very systematic, terse, definite, direct. After a brief three-page introduction quoting one or two opinions on the comparative desirability of different floor surfaces for different locations, and three more pages on their maintenance, it takes up floors and floor coverings under the following headings: "Character and composition," "Advantages," "Disadvantages," "Specifications for laying," "Maintenance," "Types and thicknesses," and "Firms manufacturing the flooring and their trade-names for it."

Now information concerning the last is not to be found elsewhere in such simple form. Perhaps one may hear a flooring recommended by name—Tiletex, for instance, or Linotile—but if the name is not familiar and is not in Sweet's, it takes time and trouble to learn what sort of a flooring Tiletex or Linotile really is. A manufacturer produces a certain standard material and, in order to avoid rivals, he advertises it under a trade-name. Often its real

character is not brought out. This is all very annoying, and one does not care to use a material without knowing what it is, simply because someone praises it. This little paper-bound booklet identifies the flooring at once, so that it can be compared with others of its class, perhaps with one of them that may be familiar through its use in some other building.

The general tone of the booklet is quite impartial. There are no recommendations. Miss Plaister controls any prejudices she may have and writes as if all her information had been compiled from outside sources and had been carefully checked. She freely credits others for substantial assistance. Naturally, this does not detract from the confidence one feels in the statements made. Here and there one is inclined to disagree with something said or to deplore an omission, but there are surprisingly few such places. Perhaps a few notes might have followed each trade-name, pointing out individual characteristics. Doubtless this is omitted to avoid dispute.

Costs per square foot are not given. The Introduction explains that quoted costs would be misleading, and it is true that local conditions and the amount of flooring required greatly modify unit costs.

Though written primarily for librarians, the booklet should be valuable to architects also. It is the best flooring schedule the present reviewer knows of; he intends to keep a copy at hand and to fill the margins gradually with additional data.

The American Library Association publishes studies on library subjects from time to time. The format chosen for this one facilitates quick reference and might well serve as a model for future booklets.

ALFRED MORTON GITHENS

Architect New York City

Public library lighting, Vol. II: Artificial lighting, Part I: General principles and planning. By R. D. HILTON SMITH. ("The librarian series of practical manuals," Vol. XIII.) Gravesend: Alex. J. Philip, 1938. Pp. 95. \$1.75 (through H. W. Wilson).

There are few unprejudiced writers on this most controversial subject. Mr. Hilton Smith presents the matter fairly, attempts to show all sides, and evidently tries to avoid unreasonable denunciation or unwarranted enthusiasm. He realizes the confusion of contradictory statements made by various fanatics who have rushed into print, and he whimsically quotes an unnamed engineer to the effect that "the so-called knowledge of lighting is still a tangled maze of beliefs, prejudices, illusions, delusions and known facts."

Six years ago Mr. Hilton Smith edited a report on a discussion by the Library Association concerned largely with lighting, and he is now publishing a series of three small volumes on the subject. The first, issued two years ago, was on natural lighting. This second volume covers the general principles of artificial lighting. The third, which is promised soon, will deal with the various systems of artificial lighting and their application to special library needs.

The book avoids technicalities, is easily understood, summarizes broadly, and draws attention to matters to be considered by librarian and architect in planning a new building and by librarian and trustees in checking over their present situation. The author mentions certain prevalent faults and tells how to overcome them. It might be wise for each librarian to read this book for assistance in making plans for future improvement when a favorable time arrives.

Four major requirements of good lighting are listed and analyzed: (1) freedom from glare, both direct and reflected; (2) uniformity of light; (3) even

diffusion; and (4) freedom from inconvenient shadows.

Chapters follow on the proper quantity of light necessary, according to different authorities; on measuring illumination, with the advice to each librarian to make a personal study of his own building with a light-meter; and, in the last chapter, advice is given on general planning, the placing of control switches, and on maintenance of the system. There follow a bibliography and a list of buildings to visit, though these are located in England and western Europe and are inaccessible now.

Several tabulations are given, but unfortunately no illustrations. As in Mr. James Thayer Gerould's book on *The college library building*, a clear and simple text makes up, in part, for this lack. This is all very well for librarians, but we architects learn more from drawings and diagrams than from text; so

we are not quite satisfied.

ALFRED MORTON GITHENS

Architect New York City

A manual of practical book selection for public libraries. By HAROLD V. BONNY; with an Introduction by HAROLD GROOM. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. ix+193. 10s. 6d. net.

Harold Bonny is an English librarian, a fellow of the Library Association, and the author of *Reading*: an historical and psychological study, which was published early in 1939. He has designed this compact little manual as a text-book for the use of students preparing for the Library Association examinations, which establish the English professional qualifications for library service. It should serve its purpose well, for it is simple, practical in scope and treatment, and comprehensive in its survey of the subject. The problems, methods, and objectives dealt with are those of present-day English public library service as it operates in the two separate fields of urban and county library organization—a division that, in a measure, parallels the separatism between our municipal libraries and our county library systems. They represent familiar aspects of book-selection practice, offering little that is novel to

American librarians, but interesting in differences of procedure and points of view and, frequently, useful in specific suggestions.

The principles of book selection receive first attention in a summary that emphasizes influences of locality and of public demand and the perennial problem of selection for "range or appeal." It is interesting that introduction of the county library system, with its regional branches, working in close conjunction with the National Central Library, has developed an interlibrary loan service that makes "range" of collection possible for small libraries and also permits libraries to specialize more freely in desired subjects. That the English librarian's attitude toward popular demand is more sympathetic-shall I say more democratic?—than our own is indicated by the matter-of-fact statement that, as a rule, "about 70 per cent of the books borrowed from a library are fiction, and it is obvious that nonfiction readers would be unduly penalized if our libraries contained only 30 per cent fiction," and the further comment that "there can be no doubt that the public library being a civic institution all citizens have a right to its services, and the right of those who require recreational reading may be as just as the right of the student." The recommendation that "the book stock of a lending library" should consist of about 45 per cent of fiction is, however, modified by the fact that "lending library" means only what we should call the circulation department, and there is no indication of what proportion of the total book stock of the institution is considered advisable for the "reference library."

There follow, in logical progression, fifteen chapters devoted to the various phases of the subject: selection aids; the individual book (edition, series, format, etc); organizational and community factors (with a summary of the Wellard scheme for co-operative reader analysis); methods of current selection; consideration of selection for lending, reference, children's, technology, and branch libraries, respectively (or, in American terminology, for those particular public library departments); selection for county libraries (very interesting in its indication of organization and method); selection of periodicals; selection for a new library (an excellent short summary); organization of book purchase (i.e., order and acquisition practice); discarding and revision of stock.

In brief comment on these chapters it may be noted that American bibliographical apparatus for selection is much more extensive and highly organized than is the kindred English material; that final authority in selection seems to be vested in a subcommittee of the library board which passes on the librarian's recommendations; that staff book-meetings are little known; and that much important nonfiction that in American libraries would be part of the circulating stock seems in English practice to be placed in the "reference library" and thus made unavailable for home use (duplication of books, for both circulation and reference use, is not touched upon, though there is a suggestion that borrowing "within certain limits" might be permitted from reference shelves). The various selective lists included are interesting—among them, the list of English periodicals containing book reviews, that of twenty refer-

ence books for a branch library, the list of English commercial and technical periodicals, and the short classed list of representative English periodicals should have usefulness to American librarians. Some lapses in accuracy are to be found—such as the lack of any indication that since 1929 the Cumulative book index has included all books published in English, regardless of country of origin; and the mention of Sir John Squire as editor of the London mercury, although his editorship ended in 1935. The merging of the Mercury, in Janu-

ary, 1939, with Life and letters today is, however, duly noted.

Treatment throughout is necessarily very brief, often cursory, and the text as a whole is loosely woven. It is neither dogmatic nor pedantic, but has an easygoing common sense and breadth of view that tempers or ignores controversial argument. With Mr. Bonny's conclusion that "book selection is an art, not a science" I would register complete accord. It is, he says, "an art dependent upon too many inconstant qualities to bring it within the realms of science" It "is not a thing which may be measured with a yardstick. It cannot be stamped with the precision of any machine." We are not born, he remarks, with an instinct of book selection, but "we can exploit the results of the accumulation of our experience to aid us in our book selection—we can develop our practice until it virtually becomes intuitive."

While, for American librarians, Mr. Bonny's manual makes no basic contribution to the existing material on the subject, it will repay careful consideration by library students and by all librarians concerned with public library

book selection.

HELEN E. HAINES

Pasadena, California

Replacement list of fiction. Compiled by the A.L.A. EDITORIAL STAFF. 2d ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. vi+101 (planographed). \$1.00.

The second Replacement list of fiction is even more rigorously a report of practice than was its predecessor of 1933 and, according to the Preface, is "in no sense intended as a recommendation by either the American Library Association or the contributing libraries." To secure representative practice the Editorial Committee and the editorial staff of the A.L.A. Publishing Department selected twelve public libraries serving populations of from 10,000 to 4,000,000, geographically located from Massachusetts to California and from Wisconsin to Tennessee.

The printed list reports titles "actually and frequently" replaced by these libraries, giving publisher and price for each title. No attempt was made by the staff to select best editions, and "in some cases as many as six or eight editions of a single title are included." Out-of-print items alone were eliminated.

The result is a list of some three thousand titles—nearly double the size of the first edition. From comparison of the two it appears that most of the libraries were wary of elimination when asked which items they would still re-

place when current copies were discarded. Then, the intervening six years' crop of acceptable novels has been generous, and apparently the better detective fiction has been included more freely than before.

In the preliminary pages contributing libraries are named in four groups—according to size—and each group is given a number. Titles in the list are marked with the numbers of the groups choosing them, and it is possible for any library to learn whether others of its own size consider a given item worth replacing. Small libraries are in the minority among the dozen chosen to report, however—very probably because many are unable to give staff time to so extensive a task of checking—and thus the size group which includes the most libraries and whose selection problem is most acute receive perhaps less help than their larger colleagues. Were it possible to get reports of practice from more libraries serving populations of less than 35,000, an instructive analysis might be made of the mortality of good though not "classic" older titles owing to limitation of resources.

The second edition lacks the "Specifications for library reprints" given in the first and also the helpful note on "Reprints and publishers' series," while the practice of the reporting libraries shows about the same tendency to include domestic editions unsuited to library use (notably Triangle Books), and a proportion of British editions at 2/-3/6 if anything larger than before. Small libraries appear to use Grosset and Dunlap reprints very freely but to avoid smaller sizes and cheap imports. Large libraries stock the latter heavily, and it would be useful to know whether these books are not rebound in library binding before circulation, possibly in the library's own plant. Notation indicating such practice would discourage smaller libraries, which cannot afford initial rebinding, from stocking editions which will not survive.

JEANNETTE H. FOSTER

Drexel Institute of Technology Philadelphia

A reference index to twelve thousand Spanish American authors: a guide to the literature of Spanish America. By Raymond L. Grismer. ("Inter-American Bibliographical and Library Association publications," Vol. I, ser. 3.) New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. xvi+150. \$4.50.

This reference index is a timely and welcome publication which was sorely needed by scholars and librarians. To compile it has been an arduous task, and the author and his assistants well deserve the name of pioneers in this field. For they were compelled to start practically ab ovo, since there were no general indexes worthy of the name in any of the Spanish-American countries or in Spain itself that might have served as a nucleus around which to build. The recent tentative series of bibliographies are fairly dependable, as far as they go, but they offer no information concerning the authors treated and they are avowedly incomplete.

This index constitutes an excellent guide to the bibliographies published in this country and in Spanish America, as well as to numerous general and partial histories of Spanish-American letters published mostly in Spanish or in English, though one or two titles of works written in French and German are also included among the impressive list of books consulted by the author.

One of the most baffling and annoying tasks confronting the researcher and the librarian interested in Spanish-American letters is the multiplicity of names under which a given author may be known. For example, a writer may be listed in Spanish-American catalogs under his family name of Pérez; or under his mother's family name, Ayala; or under a hyphenated form, Pérez-Ayala; or merely Pérez A. or perhaps Pérez y Ayala. To add to this confusion many an author uses a pen name also. In this Index, therefore, "it has been especially difficult, with the limited available information concerning some of the authors, to distinguish between writers of the same name, or to establish clearly that several names quite at variance with each other belong to the same man!" Undoubtedly, errors and inconsistencies in this Index are partly due to this and partly due to inaccuracies found in the works consulted where "we found discrepancies that we have not been able entirely to correct. A single work would spell the name of an author three different ways, would attribute to him works that he must have published the year before his birth, would list numerous works from the pen of an author and at the same time indicate that he died at the ripe old age of eleven."

The arrangement of this Index is simple and of easy and quick manipulation. It is a suitable companion to the author's two other volumes: Bibliography of articles on Spanish literature (1933) and Bibliography of articles and essays on the literature of Spain and Spanish America (1935). The three volumes form an indispensable guide for the student of Spanish-American litera-

ture.

CARLOS CASTILLO

University of Chicago

Guide to depositories of manuscript collections in the United States: one hundred sample entries. Prepared by Historical Records Survey Division of Women's and Professional Projects, Works Progress Administration. Columbus, Ohio: Historical Records Survey, 1938. Pp. [ii]+134.

As indicated in the title, this lithoprinted volume is merely a preliminary edition of a projected work of the Historical Records Survey Division. The work to be undertaken has a twofold purpose: "first, to assemble a body of data to be used in formulating a program of relief work in accumulating information on manuscript collections; and second, to assemble a body of data to be used by scholars in determining whether manuscript materials are available for research purposes." As the National Director of the Historical Rec-

ords Survey, Mr. Luther H. Evans, states in the Preface, "This sample of the Depository Guide is submitted with the hope that suggestions may be forthcoming for its improvement."

No person who engages in research can doubt the value of a finding list of this type. Its value is proportionate to its completeness, its accuracy of detail, and the accessibility of the information it contains. Of the first characteristic we can, of course, form no opinion, since only one hundred entries are included, and only six hundred and fifty depositories and individuals supplied information regarding their holdings. Of the latter two qualities we can judge more competently.

The information was originally gathered by state directors and their staffs through questionnaires filled in by, or approved by, custodians of the individual collections. The work of supplementing and editing the information thus obtained was done by Mrs. Margaret S. Eliot, assisted by Mrs. Lucy Randolph and Mrs. Marguerite B. Spencer. We might naturally expect to find some inequality in the care with which the various collections have been analyzed, but this is not apparent to the reviewer.

For each institution the following information is given: (1) location, director or librarian, and the hours during which it is open; (2) the history and purpose of the institution, including a description of the quarters it occupies; (3) holdings, the general character of the collections, and specific papers in its custody; (4) an estimate of the amount of material, number of volumes, number of individual pieces, or feet of shelving; (5) the extent to which the collection has been cataloged, classified, or indexed; (6) the availability of the material to the public and the copy service furnished, if any; and (7) brief bibliographical references.

The Guide does not attempt to describe holdings in full, nor to give in the bibliographies all sources of information on the particular depositories and their contents, since it is the intention of the Historical Records Survey to issue Guides to manuscript collections for the various states, in which complete descriptions will be given.

One of the most difficult problems that a librarian has to decide is the exact line of demarcation between the term "manuscript" as applied to books written by hand before the introduction of the printed book or as a substitute for it, and the term as applied to personal letters, papers, and journals that serve as historical source material. Yet such a distinction must be made, for persons interested in one type of material have no interest in the other; and the care and handling of the two classes of manuscripts are entirely different. De Ricci's Census of medieval and Renaissance manuscripts in the United States and Canada and Clark's Descriptive catalogue of Greek New Testament manuscripts in America leave no need for further guides to medieval manuscripts. Oriental manuscripts and papyri are of interest only to specialists who would be little likely to consult a guide of this sort in an effort to locate mate-

rial of value in their fields of study. It would seem, therefore, that this *Guide* might well be limited to the second class of manuscripts, that is, historical source material.

Obviously, the index of a work of this kind is of the utmost importance. So far as it goes, the index to this volume is accurate; but it is an index of proper names only. There seems to be no more reason to index names of states—such as Alabama, California, etc.—than there is to index subjects of importance—such as reconstruction, woman suffrage, or slavery. A complete subject index would add to the labor of compiling the *Guide*, but would increase its value immeasurably.

In all, this *Guide to depositories of manuscript collections* promises to be a most useful reference book, more especially for students of American history in all its phases. When completed, and with the addition of exhaustive indexes, it should be indispensable.

ELINOR MULLETT HUSSELMAN

General Library University of Michigan

East, west, north and south in children's books: an annotated regional bibliography for use in grade and junior high schools. Compiled by DOROTHY A. WURZBURG. ("Useful reference series," No. 64.) Boston: F. W. Faxon, 1939. Pp. 158. \$2.50.

As an aid in the study of the social sciences, the editor has selected from authoritative sources 1,342 books having some degree of historical or current country background. Of this number 507 represent the United States. These are listed under separate states or district headings such as: "New England," "Ohio Valley," "Overland journeys to the Pacific," "New York (city)," "New York (state)." There are 835 entries under other geographical divisions, chiefly foreign, extending from England (96 entries), France (69 entries), and Africa (54 entries) to several small countries and islands represented by one title only. The material ranges from Dickens' novels and Pearl Buck's Young revolutionist to the Perkins' "twin" series and the outmoded Sunbonnet babies in Holland, Overall boys in Switzerland, and Betty in Canada. Very many excellent books are included for the upper and intermediate grades, for which more discriminating choice is possible. The selection for the primary grades is strengthened by the inclusion of Norwegian, Swedish, French, and other foreign picture books in English text. Children's librarians who are accustomed to using the Caldecott picture books in giving little children their earliest impressions of the English countryside will miss them. There are other omissions and considerable emphasis on useful, but mediocre, books.

The list is long, but Miss Wurzburg's aim is bold. "These books deal with the background and progress, the beliefs and customs of the peoples, and of the geography and industries of the countries they represent. They show, through accurate information and authentic pictures, people at work and at play, at home and at school" (Preface).

The result is a useful handbook not in itself a guide to reading taste. It is quite evident that final selection by teachers and students is expected in applying the list to specific needs.

The format is excellent, type is clear, and margins are sufficiently wide to permit new tities to be written in as they appear. All books are indexed by author and by title. A list of countries represented is included, from which Norway and Siam are omitted in this reviewer's copy.

EFFIE POWER

Pompano, Florida

Helping adults to learn: the library in action. Edited by John Chancellor. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. xi+296. \$3.00.

In the thirteen years since an A.L.A. committee published the report entitled Libraries and adult education much has been written and said concerning both the actual and the desirable impact on public library procedures of the new adult education movement. As yet, however, there has not been a sufficient accumulation of carefully evaluated and studied experience on which to base answers to the fundamental questions which have been raised. Is all the work of the library among adults "adult education," or does this term refer only to some portion of the total activity? Should the library develop its own programs, or should it endeavor only to supplement those of other agencies? Is it the function of the library to extend its influence into new types of activity, or might it better develop in a more extensive fashion the traditional procedures of library operation?

These are difficult questions, the answers to which will influence all phases of library management—personnel, organization, book selection, cataloging, and the like. It is no wonder that, at the prospect of so fundamental a readjustment, there has been a reluctance on the part of some librarians to forsake routine procedures.

This new book, edited by John Chancellor, demonstrates, however, that many librarians have struck out boldly in an attempt to solve to their own satisfaction some particular aspect of the total problem. Helping adults to learn is a compilation of the experience and thought of many librarians, as described in their own words, and is intended to serve other librarians as an omnibus volume of suggestions and models for action. It is not—nor is it intended to be—a definitive volume, but it is an important step in the evolution of such a work.

Well over half of the book is devoted to narrative accounts of what is being done in certain public libraries of this country in order to meet more fully the educational needs of adults. The book divides such programs into a threefold classification: programs of service to individuals, programs of service to

groups, and comprehensive library-adult education programs. Of these three, the second is treated most fully. In the description of these programs there has been an effort to cover the whole library field, attention being given to state libraries as well as to libraries in cities, in villages, and in the open country.

The remainder of the book is given over to seven general articles, dealing with adult education and encompassing all areas of library service. Of these accounts the most valuable is Mr. Chancellor's general synthesis of the important points on which there seems to be agreement at the present time. An

extensive annotated bibliography concludes the volume.

While many points of view are expressed in the volume, all of them seem based upon a broad conception of adult education and its implications for libraries. Although specific programs are described in detail, there has been a conscious effort to treat them not as isolated phenomena but as activities developing in answer to certain needs and in turn producing certain results. Wherever possible, there is an attempt to generalize upon experience in such a fashion that principles may be drawn for the assistance of other librarians. In this connection there is a refreshing attitude of critical examination and some disinclination to take results at their face value.

The present reviewer feels, however, that there is one important shortcoming in that the present volume does little to counteract a certain blindness which appears in the other literature in the same area. This is the failure to consider the public library with respect to the modern public-school system. It has apparently been assumed by many writers that the school is a rigid, formal institution concerned only with children or with adults who have marked educational deficiencies of the most elementary sort. (This viewpoint is clearly formulated in Dr. Alvin Johnson's recent volume, The public library -a people's university.) Few librarians realize that the public schools, which have themselves been stimulated by the challenge of adult education, have, in many places, been developing a new spirit of freedom and service equal or superior to that of even the most advanced libraries. It is true that school administrators, in turn, have not been sufficiently aware of the newer trends in library theory. Both agencies should have vital and progressive programs for adults, but these must be brought much closer together in an understanding and sympathetic fashion or their individual development will be impaired and the future will be certain to bring new problems as these two major agencies make their individual bids for leadership.

University of Chicago

CYRIL O. HOULE

Basic reference books: an introduction to the evaluation, study, and use of reference materials with special emphasis on some 300 titles. By Louis Shores. 2d ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. xiii+472. \$4.25.

Anyone familiar with the transitory appearance of the 1937 "preliminary" planographed edition of Basic reference books must be impressed with the

contrasting excellence of the modern printing and binding of this second edition.

In revising his manual for reference teachers, reference workers in the field, and library-school students, Mr. Shores has sought suggestions from the first two groups. The ideas he has thus received, in addition to his own classroom experience in the use of the text, have led to some rather fundamental changes. For example: (1) Entries for reference books have been placed near the discussion in the text, rather than at the end of the chapter, as in the preliminary edition. The 172 titles which have been included for "intensive study" are numbered in the text, while the 254 additional titles for "general acquaintance" are indicated in footnotes throughout the nineteen chapters dealing specifically with reference aids. (2) Separate chapters for yearbooks, handbooks, directories, and representations have been written, and retrospective as well as current biographical dictionaries have been included in one section. (3) The section on government documents has been combined with the section on document indexes to form a separate chapter. In the earlier edition documents had been treated in the chapter on serials. (4) Special subject materials have been re-grouped, and treatment of the applied sciences and fine arts has been expanded, thus correcting to a considerable extent a major weakness of the earlier edition. (5) Some new reference materials have been included, and the treatment of learned societies and background discussions has been expanded.

It is gratifying to discover that the National cyclopaedia of American biography and the United States government manual, unaccountably omitted from the preliminary edition, are treated rather fully in the revision. Of the reference works published for the first time since 1937, Partridge's Dictionary of slang and unconventional English, Van Nostrand's scientific encyclopedia, Taylor's Garden dictionary, Shankle's American nicknames, Kunitz and Haycraft's American authors, 1600–1900, and the Bibliographic index are among those

included for "intensive study."

There has been criticism of Basic reference books in that it includes only a few foreign titles. Omission of foreign reference titles, however, is understandable, since selection of the "core collection" of titles was based initially on composite indications by American reference teachers and reference librarians in school, public, and college libraries, of those titles most intensively taught or most often consulted. In one instance Mr. Shores has expanded the material in the revision so as to overcome this rather thoughtless criticism to some degree. The chapter on "Bibliographies" contains a new section on foreign bibliographies which is a tabular presentation of the principal bibliographic tools comprising the national bibliographic systems of England, France, and Germany. The student is thus enabled to compare the most useful of the foreign systems with that of the United States, which is treated in sufficient detail for a one-year course.

Careful examination of the book reveals an admirable standard of typographical correctness. In the chapter on "Bibliographies," however, there is an unfortunate error. At the top of page 207 Schneider's final definition of bibliography, as translated by Shaw, is misquoted. The last word of this definition should be "bibliographing" rather than "bibliography." This typographical slip is regrettable in that Schneider took some pains, through a footnote, to explain what he meant by this coined term "bibliographing." Possible consequences are that novices in bibliographical mysteries may learn this definition verbatim, albeit incorrectly, since it springs from Schneider's Handbuch, the alpha and omega of treatises on bibliography.

The three chapters pertaining to the theory and practice of reference work remain virtually unchanged in revision. As a matter of fact, there is no reason why they should be changed, since the original edition gave an incisive account of the place of reference in the library organization, the administration of a reference department, and the duties of the reference librarian. If some of the material appears to "gild the lily," it should be remembered that many a one-year library-school student has had but the suggestion of an acquaintance

with libraries.

The author has not been content to undertake the resolution of the question, "Which of the four thousand titles in Mudge's Guide to reference books must the student master?" Throughout, he has added elements of human interest to assist the student in associating the background of the book with its arrangement and scope. He has thus produced a teachable, readable, text. While teachers of reference are constrained to agree with Eunice Wead that Mudge's Guide will continue to be indispensable and should be the first purchase of every student, the fact is that the Guide remains unteachable and in no sense readable; for these are not numbered among its purposes. Through the "Readings" at the ends of the chapters Mr. Shores brings before the reader a considered selection of the literature of reference not only from the Guide and from Dr. Wyer's Reference work but from the contributions of workers in specialized aspects of the field.

For the first time we have a book which brings together reference literature: subscription books, nonsubscription books, and definitive writings on the theory and practice of reference work and bibliography. The critical selection of this mass of scattered literature is in itself a difficult assignment. But its reduction to the level of usefulness in the one-year library-school curriculum, while retaining its implications for the reference field worker, is a tribute to

the resourcefulness and ingenuity of the author.

JAMES T. RUBEY

School of Library Science Simmons College A southern bibliography: fiction 1929-1938. Compiled by Janet Margaret Agnew. ("Louisiana State University Library School bibliographical series," No. 1.) University, La.: Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, 1939. Pp. 63.

The compiler of a southern bibliography must first decide at least three questions: Will his work include only authors born in the South? What is the South? What is fiction? In this slim volume, A southern bibliography: fiction 1929-1938, the first has been wholly answered, the second only partly, and the third vaguely, if at all. Margaret M. Herdman, who supplies the Foreword, states that the volume "includes titles about the South, by southern authors and authors from other regions." The answer to the second question was predetermined by Howard W. Odum's Southern regions, which defines a region as a group of states which, according to some seven hundred indices, more closely conform to a homogeneous pattern. The third—what is fiction? -is left vulnerably unanswered, except that the compiler states that "Love stories, mystery and adventure stories were excluded" and "southern writers such as James Branch Cabell, Conrad Aiken, Katherine Ann Porter [why mention her at all?—she is a Texan, and Texas is not a southern state, according to the Foreword] and many others who do not write of the South were omitted." Miss Herdman adds that "historical fiction" was also omitted from this, but will be published separately as a second volume, and nonfiction as a third. Miss Agnew further states that "the list does not profess to completeness, as in some cases neither the books nor reviews could be found."

Unless we are mistaken, the editor of this bibliography has failed to abide by either the spirit or the letter of the law of regionalism as laid down by Odum. Southern regions repeatedly makes clear that "there is no longer in the United States any single entity which may be designated as 'the South.'" More properly, Odum continues, "there is a Southeast and a Southwest"both of which, considered together, compose the southern region. To have excluded the Southeast from a "southern" bibliography, considering only the Southwest, would have been no more of a technical injustice than the preparing of a "southern" bibliography which includes only the Southeast. If the editor of this volume was willing to accept Odum's study as her geographical guide, and if she had elected to do the job completely, she should have done one of two things: included the Southwest also (in which case her present title would have been accurate) or, if she wished to omit the Southwest, as she did, she should have changed her title to A southeastern bibliography: fiction 1020-1938. In either case, we feel justified in remarking that eastern Texas and eastern Oklahoma, omitted from this work, are definitely southeastern, as a glance at Odum (map 2, p. 6) will testify. We also recognize the difficulty, however, of abolishing state lines; but we cannot refrain from reminding the compiler of this bibliography that novelists like Sigman Byrd and John W.

Thomason, east Texans who write of east Texas, will doubtless be surprised to

learn that they are not "southern" authors.

Furthermore, we somehow cannot adjust our thinking to the point of accepting so inclusive a title as A southern bibliography for a work which omits historical, mystery, love, and adventure fiction; admits incompleteness, and leaves out, however much explanation may be tendered, such a well-known southern fiction personality as James Branch Cabell of Richmond. The editor is correct in stating that Cabell does not write of the South. She might have added that he does not write of the North or the West or the East. Cabell has created a dream-world all his own-Poictesme-about which he writes: it might as well be a "southern" dream-world. Indeed the South can ill afford to have him claimed elsewhere. On the same ground we argue the inclusion of Ernest Hemingway, of Illinois, as being a "southern" author because he laid the scenes of To have and have not along the Florida coast, or of Joseph Hergesheimer, of Pennsylvania, because he visited Kentucky and wrote The limestone tree. We are also inclined to suspect that the faith of purchasers of this volume will be rudely shaken when they open it and find that Gone with the wind, Look back to glory, The long night, None shall look back, Lamb in his bosom, Bugles blow no more, Deep summer, and many other historically important novels are not included. But here again our observations point to an illchosen, ambiguous title. A southern bibliography: fiction 1929-1938 should, as the title indicates, include all of the South and all kinds of fiction. If it does not, the title should, in all fairness, make this fact known. More authentically, then, this volume should have been called A southeastern bibliography: nonhistorical fiction 1929-1938.

We dare not presume to match wits with one who has labored meticulously and long over a list of authors and titles. In glancing through the volume, however, we were impressed with what appeared to be certain omissions. In each case the editor doubtless has a justifiable reason for her decision. Helen Topping Miller, author of at least four books about the South in the last five years, is represented by The flaming Gahagans only. Perhaps this one could not be classed as a "love" story. Anulet Andrews' (Mrs. Kingsley Ohl) Melissa Starke (1934) is not listed, doubtless because it is "historical"—though the years covered are not far from our own. Maristan Chapman's Glen Hazard, a mystery centered about a murder in the Tennessee mountains, is included, but subsequent novels in the series dealing with the same region are omitted. George S. O'Neal's A wedding in June (1934) is not named; neither is Cid Rickett's Ann Singleton nor James H. Street's Look away (1936). William Faulkner's Absalom, Absalom! (1936) is omitted, doubtless on the grounds that it is historical. The sound and the fury and Sartoris, dealing with the same "family frequently depicted by the author in his other books" are listed. Marian Sim's Call it freedom and The world with a fence appear, but her Memo to Timothy Sheldon (1938) does not. All are "love" stories. DuBose Heyward's Lost morning (1936) is not included, presumably because the setting of the

novel is not southern. The title of James Saxon Childers' A novel about a white man and a black man in the deep South is erroneously given, and his God save the duke, a novel about the University of Alabama, included in the author list, is omitted from the state list.

The above observations fall short of sufficient evidence, however, to relegate A southern bibliography to unimportance. There can be no doubt that in undertaking the responsibility of compiling such a check list of southern books, the Library School of Louisiana State University is rendering an invaluable service. Such a bibliography has long been needed. Miss Agnew's volume, the first in what we trust will be a long series, sets a high standard to which other compilers who follow will have to strive. Her work exhibits precision, a remarkable energy, and a passion for detail. We cannot imagine a library in this country which would not welcome a volume of this kind.

Titles in A southern bibliography are classified and arranged alphabetically by category, such as "Family life," "Mulattoes," "Negroes," "Shanty-boat people," and "Town life." Complete bibliographical information, including a one-sentence summary, is given for each title. The "Author list" attempts "to indicate the state in which the writer lives, or has lived, or of which he has written most frequently. The "State list" is an alphabetical arrangement by author and title under the state used as the setting." The "Title list" is arranged alphabetically. More than a hundred and fifty authors and two hundred and fifty titles are recorded. Altogether, this information should serve a worthy purpose, especially for those who are interested in the recent "renaissance" in southern literature and who have long awaited just such a tool. They will look forward eagerly to the second volume.

WILLIAM STANLEY HOOLE

North Texas State Teachers College Denton, Texas

A bibliographical guide to the Romance languages and literatures. Compiled by Thomas Rossman Palfrey, Joseph Guerin Fucilla, and William Collar Holbrook. Evanston, Ill.: Chandler's, 1939. Pp. ix+82.

At last we have at hand a convenient and adequate manual of bibliography for the Romance languages and literatures, a text originally planned for a course in that subject and now revised and enlarged to meet the needs of students—beginners in graduate work as well as those already well advanced. It is an instrument not only to be used by students and professors but to be perfected by them. Like language, bibliography is in constant growth, and the authors of the present volume recognize this and invite co-operation. The form of the book is tentative and impermanent because it is destined to grow through new editions. To lessen expense and make the text easily available to all students, sacrifices have been made in the general appearance of the book. Better paper, larger margins, and more artistic spacing could be

desired, but the type is clear and the blank pages leave ample space for new titles and critical remarks on the works themselves.

The plan is logical and complete: first, there is a general bibliography of great value to anyone embarking on a dissertation, as it includes not only the usual guides to methods of research but also valuable entries dealing with indexing, cataloging, and librarianship, as well as manuals of style and topography. There follows a general survey of the bibliographies not only of the field in question but of related fields—such as history, aesthetics, the fine arts, the theater, and costume. Pedagogy and paleography each have a full page, and comparative literature is well represented. With Part II begin the specialized sections offering bibliography in language and literature for French, Italian, Portuguese and Brazilian, Spanish, Catalan, Spanish-American, and, finally, Rumanian. The French, Italian, and Spanish bibliographies are handled according to the important periods in the history of each, linguistics being treated first and then literature. Besides the inclusion of all the principal standard bibliographical works which are indispensable, a carefully selected list of histories of literature and dictionaries is given, and much

attention is paid to periodicals.

The authors anticipate criticism of the arrangement of their entries, which is according to subject matter and chronology rather than by alphabet. This is confusing at first and makes the location of any particular text a little difficult, especially as there is no index. An index was felt to be unnecessary and it probably is for this first edition, but one should certainly appear in later editions. The cross-references are numerous, however, and obviate this need to some extent. The authors are to be congratulated on the almost complete absence of typographical errors. One or two corrections of another nature should be made. Entry No. 10: insert the name of Philippe Tieghem, for, with the present arrangement, the work in question appears to be by Paul Van Tieghem. No. 832: substitute the most recent edition of Il Novissimo Melzi . . . Nòva ed. ampliata, riveduta e aggiornata da G. Tecchio, L. F. De Magistris, P. Manfredi, Milano, 1938. No. 102: substitute for the former title of the Tom Peete Cross Bibliography that of the seventh edition, which is the one referred to, Bibliographical guide to English studies. There is some confusion in the entries 158 and 159 concerning the Berliner Titeldrucke. Here, as in No. 102, it would be better to use only the present title giving the date of the original work. As the entries now stand they are in reverse order, and the actual final title does not appear at all. This publication, begun in 1892, changed its title slightly in 1898, in 1910, and again in 1918. The title as given in No. 159 is really the first one it bore and should have the date 1892. By substituting "Preussische Staatsbibliothek" for "Königliche Bibliothek" and retaining the rest of the title and date as they now stand in No. 158, we would have the present title, and No. 159 could be omitted.

As this bibliography makes no claim to completeness and since it is, nevertheless, very adequate, I hesitate to suggest additions. The few I venture to

add may have been omitted for special reasons or may yet be hidden somewhere in the text and have escaped my attention. There seem to be no direct references to versification. I would suggest including L. E. Kastner's History of French versification (Oxford, 1903) and P. E. Guarnerio's Manuale di versificazione italiana (Milano, 1913), or A. Levi's Della versificazione (Genoa, 1931). The subject of phonetics is well treated, but mention should be made of the periodical American speech, which publishes a "Bibliography of phonetics" by S. N. Treviño. Include S. A. Tannenbaum's Handwriting of the Renaissance (Columbia, 1932), as there seems to be no work mentioned on this subject. In addition to No. 228 (catalog of the Bonaparte Collection) it might be advisable to insert whatever catalogs the Newberry Library furnishes, whether printed or multigraphed, since many of the students using this manual will work in Chicago. I would suggest Pierce Butler's A check list of fifteenth century books in the Newberry Library and other libraries of Chicago (Chicago, 1933) and also G. B. Utley's article, "Opportunities for research: Italian books in the Newberry Library," Italica, III (1926), 31-34. To the Italian periodicals add Antologia, Firenze, 1821-23, and Il Convegno, Milano, 1923-.

It is interesting to speculate on the later forms this book will have when it has been revised to incorporate the comments of the many readers it deserves to have. We who are interested in Romance languages are grateful to the authors for the labor and judgment they have put into this first edition, and we look forward to later editions with considerable anticipation.

University of Chicago

HILDA L. NORMAN

Professional school and departmental libraries. By Walter Hausdorfer; sponsored by the Special Libraries Association, University and College Departmental Librarians Group. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1939. Pp. 24. \$1.00.

This is a reprint of articles appearing in *Special libraries* from March to August, 1939, and is a presentation of the results of an investigation of fifty-one college and departmental libraries.

The results are given under the topics: "Place of the collegiate and departmental library in the administrative organization," "Quarters and equipment," "Personnel," "Financial administration," "Acquisition," "Preparatory processes organization," "Service to the clientele," and "Promotion-publicity."

The survey indicates the nature of the relationships existing between the departmental libraries, the collegiate departments, the central library, and the university or college as a whole, and the effect of these relationships upon the service which departmental libraries may render. The interpretation of the results and the recommendations of the committee conducting the survey are given in each section instead of being presented in a summary.

Perhaps the chief importance of this report is estimated in its final paragraph, which states that it is hoped that the survey will provoke other more detailed studies designed to furnish a broad factual basis for determining the proper position of collegiate and departmental libraries in the total library structure.

The present survey provides an excellent starting-point.

PAUL HOWARD

Enoch Pratt Free Library

Special librarianship in general libraries and other papers. By ERNEST A. SAVAGE. London: Grafton, 1939. 15s. net.

Before one can discuss the content of these papers by the principal librarian of the Edinburgh Public Libraries, some analysis must be made of the term "special librarianship" as it is used by Mr. Savage. Although his plea is, in general, for subject-departmentalism in English libraries in the manner of the Baltimore and Cleveland libraries, his conception of the staffing of subject departments is more nearly that of our own meaning of the term "special librarianship." To us, subject departmentation is an administrative device; we refer to it in terms of administrative theory and terminology; it is a mechanical method of seeking the solution for certain library problems. These papers, however, "while not disparaging administrative machinery emphasize the value of direct and friendly relations of highly competent librarians with readers and students of all kinds."

It is this spirit of direct and friendly relations that is the key to these essays, even though not all of them directly concern special librarianship. The special library should be organized whenever there is a sufficiently large group of people in the community who need and would use a special library service that is fitted to their needs. That service is directly and personally given by the special librarian who is well acquainted with the bibliography of the special field, who is well able to recommend books to meet varying needs, and who is constantly trying to increase his usefulness by watching and anticipating the needs of his clientele.

Certain mechanical devices must be sought to assist him in this objective, but their value is directly related to the effort and intelligence used in creating them. The special librarian will, of course, select and order the books to be added to the library; but, in addition, he will also catalog them. For he must know the books, must know what is in them, and cannot depend on a catalog

created by a disinterested central catalog department.

Similarly, the special librarian will create his own indexes of periodical and other current material, for commercial indexes must try to please all libraries, and so cannot meet the actual and specific needs of any one particular library. He will also develop and maintain a special bibliographic file concerning the works in his field. This file will contain a great variety

of information about books and will enable him to give evaluative bibliographic service whether or not the actual materials are in his library.

In discussing training for special librarianship Mr. Savage very nicely disposes of the ever current American controversy between those who would hire subject specialists and teach them librarianship, and those who would hire librarians and expect them to learn the subject and its bibliography. The specialist is admittedly better qualified to recommend books in the field of his specialization, but libraries are rarely devoted to fields so small that a truly specialized knowledge is possible. Ideally, the library would be best staffed by specialists in each subject field, but conditions in the public library make such an ideal setup impossible.

And so it is necessary for the librarian to depend on bibliography. Even if an engineer be retained to service a technical library, he will have detailed knowledge about only one kind of engineering; for other kinds, and for all other subjects represented in that library, he too must depend on bibliography. If his engineering training should help him there, that is all to the good, but this is not evidence enough to substantiate the position that special librarianship in public libraries necessitates special subject training on the part of its staff.

In addition to the general discussion, chapters in this volume describe the possible organization and development of a number of different kinds of special libraries, and one chapter, entitled "Knowing books as tools," outlines a course of in-service training for the special librarian that presents a discipline sufficiently rigorous to awe even the best of our special librarians.

LEROY CHARLES MERRITT

Graduate Library School University of Chicago

Government publications and their use. By LAURENCE F. SCHMECKEBIER. 2d rev. ed. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution, 1939. Pp. xv+479. \$3.00.

The second revised edition of Schmeckebier's Government publications and their use does not differ from the original 1936 edition in its arrangement and scope. It has the same number of chapters, with the same captions, as the earlier issue. It obviously is not intended to fill a different need or to appeal to other classes of users. The changes simply bring it up to date—with some omissions and a few corrections—and my conclusions concerning it are therefore the same as those contained in my review of the previous edition (Library quarterly, VII [1937], 152-54).

In his Preface to the second edition the author says: "The revision has not been confined to new practices and publications, but includes amplification of many topics, and the addition of new material on some older publications that are likely to be of interest." The new edition contains thirty-three pages more than the first. I found, in comparing the two—page by page, examining each paragraph for alterations and additions—that there was approximately a little less than thirty-five pages of additional matter. However, many clauses and paragraphs were re-written and expanded in such a way as to contribute to the total amount of new material. I noted fifteen omissions of clauses contained in the older edition, but there are probably others.

As this work (in both editions) is No. 33 in the "Studies in administration" series of the Institute for Government Research of the Brookings Institution, we regret the absence of a list of other numbers. Such a list for this, and for other series, appeared on the final pages of the first edition, reference to

which was to be found on the preliminary series leaf.

So much change has occurred in the last three years that the new edition is fully warranted. There is reason to suppose that in the future the administrative agencies and the legislative and judicial branches of the federal government will keep changing, at a possibly accelerated pace. Therefore, we shall welcome frequent revisions of Government publications and their use as a handy book of reference in research bureaus and as a very necessary one in many libraries.

R. WEBB NOYES

Syracuse University Library Syracuse, New York

An index to legal periodical literature American, English, Canadian, British Colonial, Vol. VI: 1932-1937. By Frank E. Chipman. Los Angeles: Parker & Baird, 1939. Pp. vii+817. \$25.

The sixth volume of this Index (the fourth compiled by Mr. Chipman) continues the work begun by Judge Leonard A. Jones in 1888. The series presents a guide to periodical literature from the Collectanea juridica of 1791 to the voluminous legal reviews of 1937. Volume VI indexes one hundred and four periodicals arranged in two parts: a subject index, following the headings adopted by the West Publishing Company in the American Digest system, and an author index. These two parts are not an entire duplication, since not all of the articles are listed in both parts. One review, which was not found in Volume V, is added to the list in Volume VI; while eleven other periodicals are dropped. A note as to whether these casualties were caused from discontinuance of the publication, change of name, absorption by another journal, or change of editorial policy would aid the investigator. If the list of periodicals indexed is to be relied upon, there are gaps of from one to six volumes between some of the periodicals indexed in Volume V and in Volume VI.

The value of Mr. Chipman's work to the legal profession cannot be doubted. As early as the late nineties the legal profession expressed its bewilderment

at the large number of new legal problems arising out of social and economic legislation, and these problems are apparently increasing both in number and in complexity. Commentaries and interpretations appear in the current periodicals long before they are treated in authoritative treatises, and some of the brilliant commentators do not publish their opinions in any other form. The bench has recognized the importance of periodical literature by citing articles as the source for its opinions.

Up to the year 1908 the legal profession had no guide to periodical literature except the two volumes of Judge Jones. At that time the American Association of Law Libraries began the publication of an *Index to legal periodicals*, which has an indispensable table of cases and a book-review section, both of which are wanting in Mr. Chipman's *Index*. The prompt publication and the added feature of the cumulative pamphlet supplements will probably give it preference over Mr. Chipman's *Index* in those law libraries whose budgets will bear the higher cost.

RITA DIELMANN

Graduate Library School University of Chicago

Handbook of commercial and financial services. Compiled by NATIONAL FINAN-CIAL GROUP, SPECIAL LIBRARIES ASSOCIATION; DOROTHY AVERY, chairman of Revision Committee. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1939. Pp. 70. \$2.00.

Ever since the first lists of business information services, prepared by the Business Branch of the Newark Public Library, were published in *Special libraries* (April, 1921, and April, 1922) there has been an incessant demand to "expand these lists and bring them up to date." This book is the fourth such effort, previous editions having been issued in 1924, 1931, and a supplement in 1932.

There is no other field of publications for which bibliographical data is so meager or so difficult to obtain. With one exception—the Illinois Chamber of Commerce research department published commercial services available to business firms in 1927—no organization has attempted to meet this acute need other than committees or groups in the Special Libraries Association. The present revision is the work of a committee of the Financial Group of the Special Libraries Association.

The list contains data on commercial and financial services issued by 263 firms—an increase of 124 over previous editions. The selection is obviously based on holdings in the libraries to which the committee had access, and its shortcomings are those of omission. To criticize it on this basis seems like "biting the hand that feeds one," since no other list is available.

However, a few such omissions might be mentioned in the hope that other librarians will also send to the Special Libraries Association notes of similar cases that come to their attention for consideration in future editions—e.g., two services in the field of business statistics that should be considered with those of the Econograph Corporation (mentioned as No. 73 in the book) are those published by Crandall, Pierce and Company, and Anderson's business comparisons.

Mention is made of reports issued by Lockwood Greene Engineers, Inc. (No. 138 in the book), but not of those issued by Ford, Bacon and Davis.

Inc., another firm in the same field.

The H. H. Copeland and Son and the White and Kemble services on railroads are listed, but not those of Whitman, Requardt, and Smith—their

equivalent for public utilities.

The Building reports for metropolitan New York and New Jersey (Dow Service, Inc.) and for the District of Columbia (Blue reports) happily are included. But there are similar reports for other cities which could be ferreted out for inclusion in future editions—e.g., Howard Whipple Green's Sheet-aweek and Beach reports for Cleveland, Ohio.

The book is arranged alphabetically by publishing firm and contains a

selective title and a subject index.

A note, giving reason for reference from one name to another when firms

have merged or changed names, would be helpful.

The library profession owes the Revision Committee a debt of gratitude for getting the work off the press, and this reviewer hopes readers will realize that this is the type of tool that needs tremendous co-operative effort if anything like a complete list is ever to be attained.

Rose L. Vormelker

Cleveland Public Library

Research facilities of the International Labour Office available to American libraries. By JOSEPH B. ROUNDS. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. 70. \$0.75.

This publication represents the study of a small, but specific, phase of international library co-operation and was undertaken with the assistance of the Rockefeller Foundation. It covers specifically the research and publishing functions of the International Labour Office at Geneva, Switzerland. Although the International Labour Office is primarily the secretariat of the International Labour Organization, its facilities for research are available to accredited students and scholars, while its publications are sold in most nations of the world.

The survey of the research activities of the International Labour Office includes the library, the archives, and the general information section. Since recent cataclysmic events in Europe now make the visits of American students impracticable, it is interesting to note that the library of the International Labour Office will undertake to loan its material to libraries outside

of Europe upon request. Moreover, photostat copies of documents or passages from books in the library collection can be secured, and the use of microphotography by the library is anticipated. The general information section will prepare bibliographies and careful reports written by specialists in answer to requests for information from the officials and bureaus of member governments, as well as from employers' associations and trade-unions. However, the author observes that the number of institutions which have taken advantage of these facilities has not, up to now, been large.

The second part of this study dealing with the large number of publications of the International Labour Office will, perhaps, be of more immediate value to American librarians. This is in effect a concise bibliography of these publications. Although the International Labour Office issues a list of its publications which are for sale, the author comments on the lack of a good general subject index or even a check list such as Carroll's Key to League of Nations documents or a handbook such as DeBreycha-Vauthier's Sources of information. However, this study will serve as a good overview of the field

of publications issued by the International Labour Office.

There are two appendixes. The first lists the libraries in Canada and the United States which receive all International Labour Office publications. The seventy-eight libraries in the United States receiving these publications are distributed geographically as follows: northeast region, 37; midwest region, 22; far west region, 10; southeast region, 5; southwest region, 1; northwest region, 3. It will thus be seen that the largest concentrations of I.L.O. publications are in the regions which were found to be the best equipped in library facilities according to Carleton B. Joeckel in his report to the Advisory Committee on Education. The second appendix contains a short bibliography on the research activities and resources of the International Labour Office. Although a subject index is omitted, there is an index to I.L.O. titles mentioned in the text.

T. S. HARDING

University College Northwestern University

A picture dictionary for children: a first guide to the meanings, spellings, and use of words and a fascinating introduction to the adventure of building a vocabulary. By Garnette Watters and S. A. Courtis. New York: Grosset & Dunlap, 1939. Pp. 478. \$0.50, paper; \$1.00-\$1.50, cloth.

Until 1935, when Dr. Thorndike published his Century junior dictionary of 23,000 words based on a scientific investigation as to the use, needs, and interests of boys and girls between ten and fifteen years of age, children for the most part had to depend on the dictionaries, abridged and otherwise, prepared for adults.

This year two educators, one a well-known professor of education and the

other a supervisor of primary reading, have taken another step and collaborated on a volume of 2,200 basic words and an almost equal number of variants for the use of children from six to ten, to which the name Picture dictionary has been given. In this case also scientific procedure was followed. Words showing the greatest frequency in written work, oral conversation of young children, and forty-six readers for the primary grades were analyzed, and the composite list checked against three standard vocabularies—Gates, Horn-Packer, and Thorndike.

The authors' claim that the resulting vocabulary is adapted to the interests of this age level is substantiated by the fact that more than half the words with their definitions are concerned with the everyday experiences of little children, with family, home, school, and community relationships, as well as with animals, pets, birds, and flowers. A surprisingly large number stress the ethical aspect, while the importance of health, hygiene, and safety appear throughout the volume. In keeping with the spirit of the times more words are included associated with patriotism, defense of country, citizenship, and national heroes than with Mother Goose or folk literature. Examined from the viewpoint of grammar, nine parts of speech, including adverbs, conjunctions, and exclamations, are introduced, although more than half are nouns, as these occur most often in written and oral work for this age level.

Except for the omission of diacritical marks, the arrangement of words and syllable division follows the usual dictionary pattern. From this point on the Picture dictionary introduces many new features. In order to facilitate recognition and to show the relationship between reading, writing, and spelling, each separate word appears in its graphic representations, namely, (1) printed and (2) written, both in cursive and manuscript. Definitions are given by means of one or more simple, interesting sentences, printed in large type, and the word in question is either underlined, or boxed in with a synonym or synonym phrase. In case a given word has more than one meaning, several sentences indicate this differentiation. As a final means of enlarging the vocabulary and reading horizon of the young child, variants of the word—such as the principal parts of verbs or the comparative forms of adjectives-are placed beneath the definitions, inclosed in parentheses, and printed in smaller type. As for nouns, either the plural or singular, as the case may be, is given, which, inasmuch as this requires merely the addition or omission of an "s," would seem to be leaning backward in the cause of clarification. In conclusion, the definitions are on the whole interesting and satisfactory, although in certain cases they are subject to criticism. To cite one example, the word "school" hardly seems an adequate equivalent or synonym for "college."

The physical appearance of the volume, however, distinguishes it the most markedly from the usual dictionary. On each of the large quarto pages appear in alphabetical order on the average five words, separated from one another by horizontal lines, together with their graphic representations in one column

and the sentence definitions in the second. Small but effective black-and-white line drawings for at least half of the words illustrate the explanatory sentences and well justify the title of *Picture dictionary*.

As has already been suggested, the young child as reader is kept constantly in mind. In fact, the introduction is addressed to him and explains the method of finding words and in somewhat laudatory terms the pleasures to be gained by its perusal. Yet in the long run the child will be introduced to the book by the adult—the parent, teacher, or librarian. For their benefit an explanatory chapter, stating the method of compilation, value, and importance of developing the dictionary habit in the child, has been added at the back. For teachers there is a special section devoted to the use in the classroom, either as a text or supplementary reader, although the authors insist that the approach be spontaneous or connected with some purposeful activity. An index listing alphabetically all the basic words and variants—a total of 4,832—with pagination completes the volume.

To achieve success in this difficult field of dictionary compilation demands, remarks Dr. Thorndike, "a knowledge of the English language, a scientific knowledge of children's minds, their needs in reading, ingenuity and thoughtfulness for details." These requirements would seem to have been considered and, on the whole, successfully met; but the vindication of the authors' slogan "dictionaries can be fun" will in the end be proved by the introduction and use of the *Picture dictionary* in classroom, home, and library.

HELEN MARTIN ROOD

Scarsdale, New York

Social services and the schools. By EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, 1939. Pp. xi+147.

As stated in its Foreword, this volume presents "a systematic analysis of cooperative relationships between public schools and public health, welfare, and recreation agencies and public libraries." The responsibilities of educational authorities in regard to furnishing these services or to co-operate with agencies outside the school through which such services may be made available to school children are discussed. Consideration is given to the administration of community library services, community recreation, the school health program, and the school welfare program or guidance services. (A brief account of their functioning in six communities studied by the Commission is given in the Appendix.) General policies in the administration of these social services are stated. Appended also are the tabulations of a questionnaire study of school social services in 414 selected cities and counties. A modest bibliography of selected references and an excellent index complete the report.

Because of the overlapping functions of the services under consideration

there has been much confusion in their integration, a situation this volume is designed to clarify. It is admittedly only a starting effort and much further work needs to be done, particularly in reference to the school health program. The text clearly distinguishes between school and home responsibilities relative to pupil health and emphasizes the need for instruction of parents as part of the school health program. It is pointed out that "the preparation of curricula and actual [health] instruction are carried out largely by the classroom teacher." There is, however, an almost total disregard of the need for in-service training of teachers in matters of school health and hygiene. This lack of preparation for participation in the school health program is one of the most potent forces militating against the success of any such program.

A commendable feature of this report is the emphasis placed on the responsibility of the school to adult members of the community in relation to library service, community recreation, the school health program, and the

school welfare program.

This report should be useful to school administrators and to workers in the fields of the services discussed. Schoolteachers, particularly, should profit by understanding the principles and policies here set forth.

University of Chicago

ARTHUR TURNER

American Shakespearean criticism, 1607-1865. By Alfred Van Rensselaer Westfall. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. xii+305. \$2.75.

Since the elder H. H. Furness began his work soon after the close of the Civil War, the place of America in the field of Shakespearean scholarship has been assured. But most students of Shakespeare would doubtless be hard put to it to name offhand three important American editors or critics prior to that time. And it is safe to say that they would be unable to name more than one who attained any considerable reputation beyond the Atlantic.

Yet Shakespeare was by no means neglected here before 1865, and it is high time that a thorough study be made of the editing, publication, and criticism of his works by the American pioneers in the field. Professor Westfall fills the need with a detailed, full-length account of Shakespeare in this country from the first signs of interest in the dramatist down to the close of the old era with the simultaneous appearance of the Richard Grant White

and the Cambridge editions.

The work is arranged in two sections: the first is a chronological account of the copies of the plays known to have existed in the colonies, the earliest stage performances, and the criticism and editions down to the Civil War period; the second section deals with the various subjects of American criticism—"Aesthetic criticism," "The moral justification of Shakespeare," and the like, and includes chapters on biography, sources, *Hamlet*, the Sonnets, and "Our presidents as Shakespearean critics."

The seventeenth century is, so far as Shakespeare in America is concerned, an almost complete blank. The early settlers, both in Virginia and in New England, were too much preoccupied with the serious business of keeping their bodies alive in this world and providing for the welfare of their souls in the next to have time for such light reading as stage plays, which the Puritanism of the time condemned. Though tradition has reported that Cotton Mather brought a copy of the First Folio from England, the only Shakespearean volume in this country of which there is clear evidence before the close of the century is the copy of Macbeth (first published separately in 1673; not, as Professor Westfall says on p. 34, in 1675) mentioned in the will of one Arthur Spicer, of Virginia, proved April 3, 1700. Otherwise no allusion to Shakespeare, either in print or in manuscript, is known in seventeenthentury America; and no stage performance is recorded until well into the next century. In view of this nearly total blank, Professor Westfall's title, with the dates 1607–1865, may well be considered misleading.

In another respect the title is not sufficiently inclusive. The subject matter of the book is by no means confined to American criticism, but contains much valuable information regarding the publication of Shakespeare in America. Some few of the early productions were edited texts. The first edition (Philadelphia, 1795), the Boston edition of 1802, and the first American Variorum were slightly edited by Joseph Hopkinson, David Francis, and Joseph Dennie, respectively. O. W. B. Peabody devoted somewhat more care to his edition of 1836, and Verplanck's edition of 1844 may be considered the first serious attempt to better the text by more than occasional reference to original sources. With White, whose edition began to appear in 1857 and was finished in 1865, American editing and criticism may be said to have attained their majority. To an early interest in Shakespearean studies White added a critical faculty and an industry which distinguished his work. He, more than any other one man, was responsible for exposing the spuriousness of the alterations in the Perkins Folio, because he knew Shakespeare's language and his age. Professor Westfall succeeds admirably in demonstrating the gradual lessening during the first half of the century of dependence upon British editorial and critical opinion.

These chief American editions, and a few more, are the product of editorial effort, which is a species of criticism. But the others, which form the vast majority, were merely reprints of British editions. Each new British edition that appeared was almost immediately reprinted on this side of the Atlantic. In some cases the British publisher shipped the printed sheets or the stereotypes and published them here. Oftener an American publisher seized on a new edition and without permission—for no international copyright existed—reproduced it for the ever growing body of readers in this country. It must have been a profitable business, for reprint after reprint poured from the presses in amazing numbers. Professor Westfall's account of

these is not the least valuable portion of his book, for it forms a clear picture of the awakening general interest in Shakespeare made possible by the in-

creasing prosperity and wider education of the American people.

Chapter xvi consists of a useful list of the American editions, in chronological order, with more or less full description of each. Compiled, at least in part, from a rough typewritten list made by Mr. H. N. Paul, of Philadelphia, never intended in its present form for publication, Professor Westfall's list suffers from a lack of consistency in the descriptions. It includes not only actual American editions but the first appearances of American reprints of British editions. Since the title-pages themselves often give no indication as to whether an edition is a new one or a reprint, the value of the list would have been enhanced by the supplying of such information. No. 19, T. Wardle's Philadelphia edition of 1831, furnishes an example of this need, for it is merely an American printing from stereotypes of an edition first issued in London in 1825. Also an explanation of Mr. Paul's system of listing would have been in order. Bibliographical terminology becomes greatly complicated by the adoption in the nineteenth century of stereotype. The terms "edition" and "impression," which serve for descriptions of earlier books, can no longer be used without further explanation. In Mr. Paul's usage an edition results from any revision which necessitates the fresh setting-up of type and the making of new stereotypes. Thus one "edition" as listed by Professor Westfall may be an accurate, line-for-line reprint of another, so long as new stereotypes were made. In another case serious alterations may have been made or additions to prefatory matter or the format or the titlepage may have been changed; but, if old stereotypes were employed, the product is not regarded as an "edition" and is so omitted from this list.

In conclusion, it is the reviewer's unpleasant duty to notice certain rather glaring blemishes which mar an otherwise very readable, very useful, and much-needed book. Most of these blemishes appear to be the result of too much haste in preparation. What at first appears to be an immaturity of style would be judged leniently by the reader were it not for the fact that it is noticeably worse in the first half of the book than in the second, which shows that careful revision would have improved it. Hasty proofreading accounts for such mistakes as "Nath. Richard's" for "Nath. Richard's" (p. 27); "Dunston" for "Dunton" (p. 28); "Ash and Anders" for "Ash and Anners" (p. 174); "Cornbould" for "Corbould" (p. 177); "Granbo" for "Grambo" (p. 179); "Selons" for "Selous" (p. 184); and others less likely to cause confusion. For the word "scenariozation" (p. 5), which reminds one of such commercial coinages as "beautician" and "electragist," some other excuse

will have to be sought.

GILES DAWSON

Folger Shakespeare Library Washington, D.C.

Buch und Schrift: Jahrbuch der Gesellschaft der Freunde des deutschen Buchmuseums, Neue Folge, Band I (1938). Herausgegeben vom Deutschen Buchmuseum in Leipzig. ("Zum Schrift- und Buchwesen des Orients: Nebst vermischten beiträgen aus dem gesamtgebiete der Schrift- und Buchgeschichte.") Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1938. Pp. viii+132, mit 26 abbildungen auf xii tafeln und im text. Rm. 22.

This volume maintains the quality of the ten numbers of the first series of Buch und Schrift, of which Volumes I-III (1927-29) were edited by K. Volkmann and Volumes IV-X (1930-37) by the editor of this volume, H. H. Bockwitz of the Deutsches Museum für Buch und Schrift in Leipzig. Like several of its predecessors, this annual is devoted largely to a specific topic in book history—in this case to Orientalia. Three of the writers in this section are past contributors—Rudolf Kelling describes an early Chinese-inscribed stone owned by the museum; Johannes Schubert catalogs the exhibit held at the University Library of Leipzig commemorating the thousandth birthday of the Persian poet Firdausī (this is the longest contribution and includes a résumé of Firdausī celebrations held in other countries and an index of its own); H. J. Kissling has a brief and unimportant paper on the Muslim art of writing; and Dr. Bockwitz contributes an even shorter but more interesting note on Karabacek's pioneer studies on the use of paper in the Islamic cultural area.

There is an additional section of varia which includes Hedwig Gollob on the principles of Carolingian illumination, a list of writings on Greek and Roman book history between 1899 and 1938 by Heinz Gomoll, and a provocative note by Horst Kunze on publishing, as related to literary, history. The last contribution is the only one approaching the contemporary in its field of interest. The volume, like its predecessors, is adequately indexed and illustrated. It appears in somewhat smaller format than those of the first series.

SIDNEY KRAMER

Graduate Library School University of Chicago

Jahrbuch der Bücherpreise: Ergebnisse der Versteigerungen in Deutschland mit Protektorat Böhmen und Mähren, Holland, der Schweiz, Skandinavien und Ungarn, Band XXXIII (1938). Compiled by Rudolf Kullmann. Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1939. Pp. xv+214. Rm. 20.

In the present edition of the Jahrbuch der Bücherpreise (1938) an important change has taken place since the distinguished woman editor of long years' standing, Mrs. Gertrud Hebbeler, resigned last year. Mr. Rudolf Kullmann (Leipzig) was intrusted with the work as her successor. The new editor is well fitted for his appointed task, because he brings with him the fine instinct

of the international bookman gained from his experience of many years as an antiquarian in outstanding cosmopolitan bookhouses—such as Joseph Baer and Company (Frankfurt-am-Main), Leo S. Olschki (Florence), Otto Harrassowitz (Leipzig), and others. He had already collaborated temporarily on the previous issue of the Jahrbuch. His discriminating choice of titles in alphabetical order has given rise to an interesting cross-section of the most important book auctions held during 1938 in the Germanic countries of the Continent and in Czechoslovakia. The 33 recorded auctions are composed of 19 German, 8 Dutch, 3 Swiss, 1 Danish, and 2 Czechoslovakian. Curiously enough,

Hungarian auctions, included according to the title, are lacking.

Old bibliophile books, articles of luxury, do not have a stable market value. Their prices continuously vary, owing to the interchange of demand and supply. The demand for precious books and, thus, their price measures depend largely on the frequent shifting in the field of collecting, on world-politics, and on the prevailing economic and monetary conditions of the respective countries. The numerous book and auction catalogs of various lands have become for decades the guides and mediums of the antiquarian market. Along with their seemingly sober figures, but their oftentimes artistic and costly makeup, these catalogs develop into an alluring game of price fluctuations as well as into a psychological study of book-buying and collecting, reflecting the buyers' manifold interests together with the change of modes in collecting.

This is true also of the new Jahrbuch, which has again maintained its high bibliographical standard. It is significant of the times that the size of the present issue is much reduced—214 pages compared with 300 pages and 36 auctions listed in the previous year. Obviously, of all the auctions recorded, those of the firms Karl and Faber (München), Ulrico Hoepli (Milano-Luzern), and Gilhofer and Ranschburg (Luzern) yielded abundant treasures of valuable books of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, while the houses of Ernst Hauswedell and Company (Hamburg) and Menno Hertzberger

(Amsterdam) excelled mostly in good miscellaneous collections.

About 150 incunabula are listed. In addition to the large amount of German literature offered, illustrated books of the eighteenth to twentieth centuries, chiefly the French "Dixhuitième," graphics as well as private press imprints of German production are best represented. French literature seems quite balanced by books of the early sixteenth century (Basel, Strassburg, Venice, Antwerp, etc., imprints), and publications with copper engravings of the seventeenth century are apparently offset by standard works on art. Comparatively few books on English literature are recorded. The new editor has included in the present digest also a certain number of unusual curiosa and publications on art craft.

This time the lowest price level in the Jahrbuch is Rm. 5. The record seems to indicate that by far the highest buying power was centered in the

Swiss auctions—the sales of the Vienna Dorotheum bringing, as usual, the lowest prices in spite of a substantial stock, including a fine Goethe collection. The results of the Prague auctions were also rather modest. A large number of the incunabula at Hoepli's were sold at quite high prices; ordinary items, however, were obtainable at fairly moderate cost. Again the demand for German literature, including first editions, must have been small, the prices for the most part being kept remarkably low. The costs for the French "Dixhuitième" were relatively high, while the values placed on works with copper engravings of the seventeenth century, as well as on favorite modern press imprints of Germany, kept generally within normal bounds. Elzeviers, according to the present prevailing opinion of bibliophiles rather overestimated, could generally be had at reasonable cost. In comparison, Aldines, as a whole, reached much higher price levels. Furthermore, books on aeronautics, ancient medicine, etc., judging by the prices, appear to be still popular.

Among the maximum notations of 1938 may be noted:

Blaeu, J. Atlas maior. 9 v. Amsterdam, 1662. Rm. 3,300.—
Boccaccio. De claris mulieribus. Ulm, 1473. Sw. Fr. 7,000.—
Columna, Fr. Hypnerotomachia Poliphili. Venice, 1499. Sw. Fr. 6,400.—
Freudenberg. Saite d'estampes. Paris, 1774. Sw. Fr. 4,400.—
Goethe. Faust. Illus. by Delacroix. Paris, 1828. Rm. 700.—
Lafontaine. Fables. Illus. Paris, 1765-75. Sw. Fr. 3,500.—
Hortus sanitatis. Mainz, 1491. Sw. Fr. 1,650.—
Fischart. Eulenspiegel Reimenweiss. Frankfurt, 1570. Rm. 560.—

This bibliography is exceedingly accurate because of Mr. Kullmann's efforts. Libraries, collectors, and dealers can hardly afford to be without this handy and comprehensive tool with its up-to-date price interpretations.

LUDWIG SCHÜZ

Newberry Library Chicago

BOOK NOTES

Bibliography of costume: a dictionary catalog of about eight thousand books and periodicals.

Compiled by Hilaire and Meyer Hiler; edited by Helen Grant Cushing, assisted by Adah V. Morris. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. xl+911. Sold on service basis.

When the Costume index, compiled by Isabel Monro and Dorothy E. Cook, was published in 1937, librarians felt that they had received a gold mine, for never before had they been able to find so easily a picture of any costume desired. That index analyzed 615 titles comprising 942 volumes, with well over 26,000 illustrations under subject.

Two years later comes another important volume, a Bibliography of costume, compiled by Hilaire and Meyer Hiler. This new volume does not attempt to analyze the contents of books, but lists the book as a whole under appropriate subject headings. It is a monument to the literature on costume. It includes over 8,000 books and files of periodicals. The individual articles in periodicals are not brought out.

The Preface of twenty-eight pages on "Costumes and ideologies" written by Hilaire Hiler, the son of Meyer Hiler, is an interesting discussion of the relation of costume and clothing to such topics as psychology, religion, architecture, or the fine arts. It also includes a statement of the value of periodicals, newspapers, and encyclopedias in the study of costume.

The author entry contains a full description of the book, including references to Colas, Lipperneide, and the Costume index, if the book listed is included in these bibliographies. Notes about the publication of the book are given, and editions, publishers, and any facts that would be useful to the reader. For convenience in ordering Library of Congress cards the card number is included. Under the subject a briefer form of entry is used. One of the most impressive points of the book is the thoroughness with which the entries under subject have been prepared. For instance, there are fifty-two columns of references under the general heading of "Military costume." This is subdivided by country, then by centuries or by span of years. Another invaluable section is the one headed "Periodicals," which is carefully arranged by periods. Always before it has been so difficult to determine what periodicals were published during any particular period of time. The magazines are listed again under the name of the country which they describe.

The volume is so complete that it is a little peculiar that the Catalogue of the Hiler Costume Library compiled by Harzberg Hiler (Paris: Lecram Press, 1927) has been omitted. In 1927, Harzberg Hiler prepared a 72-page catalog of the books which were in the Hiler Costume Library at that time and which are now in the Queensborough Public Library. Between 1896 and 1905 there was published the rather complex though classified Katalog der Freiherrlich von Lipperheide'schen Kostumbibliothek in Berlin. In Paris in 1933 appeared the Colas Bibliographie du costume.

The Hiler is an international list with more references than any of the earlier bibliographies, for the compilers have used all the known sources for collecting their information, including catalogs of foreign libraries as well as special bibliographies on the subject. The book has been carefully edited by Helen Grant Cushing, a cataloger with the Standard catalog staff. She was assisted by Adah V. Morris, editor of the

Nineteenth century reader's guide, which is in preparation by the H. W. Wilson Company. The compilers and the editors should feel that they have successfully completed a most excellent piece of bibliographical work.

Canadian periodical index, 1938. Compiled by the CIRCULATION DEPARTMENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO LIBRARY, under the direction of MAY L. NEWTON. Toronto: Public Libraries Branch Ontario Department of Education, 1939. Pp. 125.

This is the first appearance of the Canadian periodical index since 1931. Because Mr. W. S. Wallace, librarian of the University of Toronto, realizes the need for analyzing the contents of Canadian magazines, he encourages the staff of his circulation department to do the work. This small volume is the annual cumulation of the index which appears quarterly in the Ontario library review beginning with May, 1938. Seven of the thirty-two periodicals indexed are also included in the Readers' guide, the International index, or the Subject index to periodicals. It is, however, very useful and convenient to have the Canadian periodicals indexed in one volume.

Librarians and scholars should be most grateful to the volunteers who are preparing this index. It has author and subject entries similar in form to the American publications of the H. W. Wilson Company. The eleven-page section listing book reviews is especially valuable.

A course in methods for the small library: prepared especially for adults. By RUTH LONG SIEFKES and C. K. Morse. ("Life enrichment correspondence study series for adults.") Lincoln, Neb.: University of Nebraska Extension Division, 1937. Pp. [viii]+142+xv (mimeographed).

This is a rather simple, yet comprehensive, statement in twenty lessons of methods for organizing and administering a small library. It is designed for use either as a correspondence-course manual, with lesson question sheets included, or as a personal study guide and instruction book. It is equipped with drawings of library paraphernalia, card forms, examples of library records, lists of publishers, jobbers, library-supply houses, important reference books and periodicals, and of fundamental library aids. It does not pretend to serve in lieu of the training given by a standard library school. There is a rather good chapter on book repair. The book may be had either with paper covers or in permanent binding. On the whole, it is to be commended as a trustworthy "first" aid.

Journal of social philosophy: a quarterly devoted to a philosophic synthesis of the social sciences, Vol. V, No. 1 (October, 1939). New York: Journal of Social Philosophy, 1939. Pp. 92.

The issue commemorating the fifth anniversary of the Journal's appearance contains articles by Charles A. Beard, Ralph B. Perry, John R. Commons, M. C. Otto, and Georges Gurvitch. Editorially and otherwise it reaffirms convincingly the present intellectual need for a philosophic synthesis of the social sciences. Students of communication, publication, and librarianship are particularly dependent upon the definitions of social values which the Journal has steadily tried to clarify.

BOOKS RECEIVED

The following publications have been received at the office of the Library quarterly:

- An appraisal of the Cleveland Public Library: evaluations and recommendations. By Appraisal Staff; Leon Carnovsky, Director. Chicago, 1939. Pp. 34 (planographed).
- Argot: a dictionary of underworld slang. Seattle: Columbia Publishing Co., 1939. Pp. 56. \$0.35.
- Articles of stationery and allied materials: their chemistry and technical examination. By H. A. Bromley and J. Shore. London: Grafton, 1939. Pp. ix+ 126. 10s. 6d. net.
- Bibliographie der Internationalen Kongresse und Verbände in der Preussischen Staatsbibliothek, Band I: Medizin. Bearbeitet von Hans Stümke. Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1939. Pp. ix+281. Rm. 30.
- A bibliography of British history (1700-1715): with special reference to the reign of Queen Anne, Vol. III. By WILLIAM THOMAS MORGAN and CHLOE SINER MORGAN. ("Indiana University studies," Nos. 119-22.) Bloomington, Ind.: University of Indiana, 1939. Pp. viii + 705. \$8.00.
- Bibliography on consumer education. By GEORGE C. MANN. New York: Harper & Bros., 1939. Pp. ix+286. \$4.00.
- Die Bibliothek des Instituts für Weltwirtschaft: Voraussetzungen und Grundlagen weltwirtschaftlicher Forschung. By Wilhelm Gülich. Jena: Verlag Von Gustav Fischer, 1939. Pp. 87.
- Biennial report of the State Department of Archives and History, including a bibliography of West Virginia, Parts I and II. Compiled by Innis C. Davis, with the assistance of Emily Johnston and other members of the Staff of the Department of Archives and History. Pp. [xv]+392.
- Biography by Americans, 1658-1936: a subject bibliography. By EDWARD H. O'NEILL. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1939. Pp. x+465. \$4.∞.
- The case against experience rating in unemployment compensation. By RICHARD A. LESTER and CHARLES V. KIDD. ("Industrial relations monographs," No. 2.) New York: Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., 1939. Pp. 60. \$1.00 (paper cover).
- Children's catalog 1939 supplement to the fifth edition, 1936 (combined with 1937–1938 supplements): a dictionary catalog of 549 books and a classified

list indicating subject headings. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. 157. Sold on service basis.

Code for classifiers: principles governing the consistent placing of books in a system of classification. By WILLIAM STETSON MERRILL. 2d ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. xi+177. \$2.00.

Consumer credit and economic stability. By ROLF NUGENT. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1939. Pp. 420. \$3.00.

Die Durchdringung der Groszstadt durch die Bückerei: eine Untersuchung. Von Walter Honer. Leipzig: Institut für Leser- und Schrifttunskunde beim Oberbürgermeister der Reichsmessestadt Leipzig, 1939. Pp. 31.

Elementary cataloguing: a textbook for the new cataloguer. By Alan F. Jones. Gravesend, England: Alex J. Philip, 1939. Pp. 54.

A handbook of classification and cataloguing for school and college librarians. By MARGARET S. TAYLOR. ("Practical library handbooks," No. 9.) London: Allen & Unwin, 1939. Pp. 120. 5s. net (through H. W. Wilson Co.).

Handelingen van het Vijfde Wetenschappelijk Vlaamsch Congres voor Boeken Bibliotheekwezen: Leuven, 22-25 April 1938 (with English summaries). Gent: Drukkerij Vyncke, 1938. Pp. 229.

The library and the community. By L. STANLEY JAST. ("Discussion books," No. 50.) London: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1939. Pp. 204. \$0.75.

The library in the school. By Lucile F. Fargo. 3d ed. Chicago: American Library Association. Pp. xvi+552. \$3.50.

The New England mind: the seventeenth century. By PERRY MILLER. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. xi+528. \$3.75.

The North Briton: a study in political propaganda. By George Nobbe. ("Columbia University studies in English and comparative literature," No. 140.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. [xi]+274. \$3.00.

The papers of the Bibliographical Society of America, Vol. XXXI, Part II (1937). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. 81-196. \$2.00.

Proceedings of the second convention of the Inter-American Bibliographical and Library Association: Washington, D.C., February 23 and 24, 1939. ("Inter-American Bibliographical and Library Association publications," ser. 2, Vol. II.) New York: H. W. Wilson, 1939. Pp. 330. \$5.00.

Proceedings thirty-first annual conference Special Libraries Association, 1909–1939. Concord, N.H.: Rumford Press, 1939. Pp. 163. \$2.00 (special price to S.L.A. members, \$1.00).

Public schools and British opinion, 1780-1860: the relationship between contemporary ideas and the evolution of an English institution. By EDWARD C. MACK. ("Columbia University studies in English and comparative literature," No. 142.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1939. Pp. xvi+432. \$3.75.

Readers' guide to rural life. ("Readers' guide," No. 27.) London: Library As.

sociation, County Libraries Section, 1939. Pp. 16.

Ricerche sulla Formazione del Più Antico Fondo Dei Manoscritti Orientali della Biblioteca Vaticana. By Giorgio Levi Della Vida. ("Studi e testi," No. 92.) Vatican City: Biblioteca Apostolica Vaticana, 1939. Pp. viii+528+21 plates.

The seaman's library manual. Prepared by HERBERT L. HOWE. New York: American Merchant Marine Library Association, 1939. Pp. 10.

Studies in the adequacy of the Constitution. By James Barclay Smith. Los Angeles, Calif.: Parker & Baird, 1939. Pp. xv+366.

Telling types in literature. By JOHN B. OPDYCKE. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. [xii]+404. \$1.80.

Trends and techniques in fund-raising: a report to the A.L.A. Special Membership and Endowment Study Committee. Compiled by ESTHER H. DIXON. Pp. 51. \$1.00 (mimeographed).

What shall the children read? By LAURA E. RICHARDS. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1939. Pp. 62. \$1.00.

